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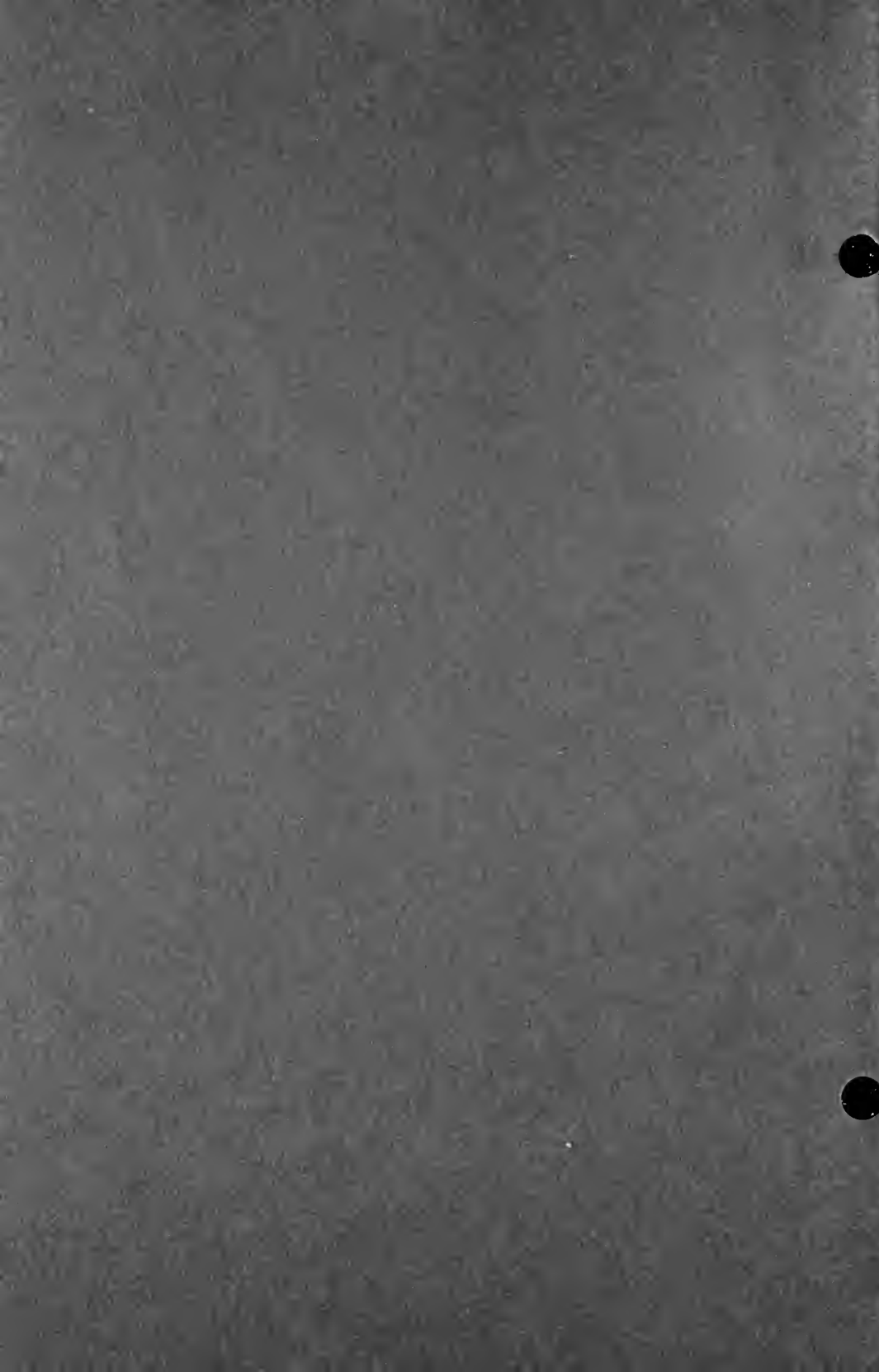
THE CHANGING ENVIRONMENT FOR LIBRARY SERVICES
IN THE METROPOLITAN AREA

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THE CHANGING ENVIRONMENT FOR LIBRARY SERVICES
IN THE METROPOLITAN AREA

Papers presented at an Institute
conducted by the
University of Illinois
Graduate School of Library Science
October 31 - November 3, 1965

Edited by
Harold Goldstein

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FOREWORD

When one ponders wearily the aftermath of any professional meeting, he cannot help feeling that much of what was said and done had been already committed to either the air waves or a publication. When one is involved in the planning of an activity such as the thirteenth Allerton Park Institute, October 31-November 3, 1965, on The Changing Environment for Library Service in the Metropolitan Area, pre-meeting apprehension and post-meeting "blues" are unquestionably the result. At the risk of expressing unwarranted optimism about this conference, however, neither set of unnerving reactions was of much consequence.

The institute announcement presented to the prospective participant an outline which was both ambitious and important. The immense complex of problems and activities which we blithely label the metropolitan situation was to be analyzed and projected; the problems of librarians serving in the four major types of libraries in metropolitan areas were to be considered, and presumably made more solvable. Both elements of the total concept were accomplished by the speakers who agreed to present papers. Somewhat immodestly, the editor of these proceedings suggests that both outline and speakers fitted together like well-oiled gears in a precision machine. This analogy is not entirely inappropriate, for without the consideration by librarians of the external forces at work which determine the parameters of library service in our ever-compacting cities, and without the help of those engaged in analyzing these parameters, not only librarianship, but also all of society may suffer. The intent of the conference, then, was to help shape for the participants some of the dimensions of this major social movement of our times.

There is another important thrust which makes these proceedings, and thus the institute which generated them, of more than passing interest: the provision in 1965 by the federal government of legislation to strengthen all four types of libraries. The Allerton Park Institute of 1962 dealt with the impact of the Library Services Act on public librarianship. The Institute of 1965 could be thought of as a prelude to consideration of how the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the Higher Education Act, and the Medical Library Assistance Act will enable these types of library units to function more effectively and fully in the cities of our country. The projections of population change, the problems of socio-political processes, and the operational difficulties of education systems at several levels are germane both to a consideration of the problems of metropolitan areas

and to the future of libraries. Readers of the proceedings, papers will be reminded of the need for constant interchange of ideas, and for constant reference to these limiting conditions on the role of libraries in modern times.

The Allerton Park Institute Committee takes this opportunity to thank again those who worked so hard and so well to provide the papers made available in these proceedings. In addition, all those who attended the conference deserve thanks from the committee for their participation in the discussions, formal and otherwise, which are always so important a part of the Allerton Park Institute climate. The planning committee for this Institute consisted of these members of the Graduate School of Library Science faculty: Lois W. Beebe, Instructor; Herbert Goldhor, Director; and Harold Goldstein, Professor, Chairman.

A special word of thanks is due to Mr. Henry C. Campbell, Chief Librarian, Toronto Public Library, for his willingness to conduct an additional session on selected aspects of the Toronto Metropolitan Plan. Dr. Peter Hiatt, Assistant Professor, Division of Library Science, Indiana University, and consultant, Indiana State Library, also contributed to the success of the institute with his résumé of Ralph Blasingame's paper. The Library Services Branch, U.S.O.E., and the National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S.O.E., graciously provided a staff member each to serve both as participants and resource persons for the institute.

All Allerton Park institutes depend on the effective coordination of details too numerous to mention with which the Division of University Extension (DUE) deals. Every institute in the past has been fortunate enough to gain complete cooperation and even greater involvement than in the normal line of duty from their staff members. Mr. E. L. [Buck] Schroth, Resident Manager, Allerton House, provided the utmost in "tender loving care" of all those in residence, and also gave of his time to present his excellent picture story of Allerton House.

Finally, Jean Somers, Editorial Assistant, Graduate School of Library Science, and Ruthann Harris did the necessary work of editing and assembling these papers. Their efforts have made possible the thirteenth volume of the Allerton Park Institute proceedings.

Harold Goldstein
Graduate School of Library Science
Chairman

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
FOREWORD	v
METROPOLITAN POPULATION: PROSPECT AND CHANGE, 1960-1980 Jerome D. Fellmann	1
GOVERNMENT IN THE METROPOLIS Charles Press	9
METROPOLITAN PROCESSES: AN OVERVIEW Philip H. Ennis	20
PROBLEMS OF PLANNING IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT Matthew L. Rockwell	40
THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT Ralph Blasingame	46
THE EDUCATION CRISIS IN THE NATION'S LARGE CITIES Carl F. Hansen	55
THE SCHOOL LIBRARY IN THE CHANGING METROPOLITAN SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT Sara Innis Fenwick	64
HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT E. K. Fretwell	76
ACADEMIC LIBRARIES AMIDST CHANGING INSTITUTIONAL DIRECTIONS William H. Carlson	87

	Page
INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN METRO- POLITAN AREAS—THE LIBRARY ENVIRONMENT	
George L. Royer	102
SPECIAL LIBRARIES, THEIR SUPPORTING INSTITUTIONS, AND METROPOLITAN PROBLEMS	
Bill M. Woods	109
APPENDIX: TORONTO	
H. C. Campbell	122
A BRIEF TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON METRO- POLITAN TORONTO FROM THE TORONTO PUBLIC LIBRARY BOARD	

METROPOLITAN POPULATION: PROSPECT AND CHANGE, 1960-1980

Jerome D. Fellmann

I have been asked to discuss some aspects of the changing character of the metropolitan population as projected to 1980. This is a tough assignment, and for reasons that I will detail later I am going to try to avoid it at all costs.

Perhaps we can begin to see the dimensions of the problem of metropolitan population characteristics in 1980 by looking at the national context. We are much confronted with references to a "population explosion" both in the United States and, of course, in the world at large. I suggest that through the nearly two hundred years of this country's history a similar pattern of "explosive" growth could be noted. At our first census in 1790, we registered about four million inhabitants; for 1980—fifteen years hence—we will probably have a population of about 244 million persons. In all but two decades of the history of this country, each decennial increase in population has exceeded the increase registered in the previous ten years. For this country, explosive growth is not new. Looking at the present situation and glancing ahead, for the nation as a whole the first half of the 1960's showed a smaller increase than the last half of the 1950's. But in the 1970's, population growth is expected to reach levels which exceed any that we have so far experienced. Between 1970 and 1975 we will probably add some 17 million persons; between 1975 and 1980 we will grow by an additional 19 million persons.

These are numbers—and big numbers—but they don't suggest that the United States is unusual. Our growth rate amounts to an average of about 1.5 percent per year in this present decade; that rate will rise slightly, to 1.6 percent, during the 1970's. The world average is now about 1.8 percent—not too far different from our own. In general, North American population is growing at a faster rate than that of the industrial countries of Europe, but it is growing somewhat more slowly than that of countries of South America, Africa, and Asia.

Now these are general figures, and they conceal the fact that different segments of our population are growing at different rates. For example, the non-white segment is growing more rapidly than the white population. In the 1950's non-white population increased by 27 percent, white population by about 17-1/2 percent. The same pattern of differential growth is expected to continue for some time in the

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future. Projections indicate an increase of some 25 percent for non-white population in the decade 1970 to 1980, as opposed to a 16 percent increase for white population. The net result is that by 1980 about 12.8 percent of the total American population is expected to be non-white, compared with about 11.2 percent non-white in 1960.

Again, as an example of differential, there are now, and will continue to be, more females than males in the United States. There was about a 50-50 split between the sexes in 1940; but by 1980 there will be only about 96 men for each 100 women. At the present time the excess of females over males is found in every section of the United States except the Far Western states and, additionally, the excess of females is greatest among non-whites and within the urban areas of the country.

Because of differential growth patterns from a standpoint of age, the age composition of the American population is changing in the present decade. The largest numerical increases are expected in the groups 14-19 and 20-24 years of age—about 12.7 million in the two groups combined, or 45 percent of our projected over-all gain. The challenges the nation has faced in the field of higher education, technical training, and job provision for these young adult populations is well known in the present decade. On the other hand, almost one-third of our population increase during the 1970's is expected to be in the age group 25-34. The 1970's, therefore, will see the beginnings of an increase in the number of persons who already have had labor experience and who are approaching their peak earning period.

Population age 65 and over is increasing at a slower rate in the 1960's than it did in the 1950's, and this reduction in rate of growth is expected to continue until the latter part of the 1970's. On the other hand, the number reaching age 18 has been rising very steadily since 1952, but this number will increase sharply in 1965 as a result of the boom in births in 1946-1947. The numbers of 18 year olds will continue to grow, after leveling off for about three years, but at a lesser rate.

These latter two trends make it apparent that the nation is going to have a younger population—on average—in 1980 than it does at the present time. In 1960 the median age of American population was 29.4 years; in 1980, because of increase in births, the median age should be about 26.4 years.

Now, with these comments on national population trends as background, let me move on to my specific assignment: the metropolitan population. And just at this point is where I start to hedge. It is relatively easier to make projections and generalizations about a national population as a whole than it is about particular segments of that population, and particularly about the metropolitan segment of it. This is true because the metropolitan population is highly aggregated in a number of individual units, each of which has its individual growth characteristics, age characteristics, and economic base and growth

potential. To be meaningful and useful, a projection of metropolitan population should be made on the basis of individual metropolitan areas or it should be confined to particular size classes or particular regional clusterings of metropolitan areas. Nonetheless, with these limitations in mind, let me try to go ahead with the job that was set for me.

As we all know, the population of the United States has become increasingly urban in nearly any way we wish to interpret that term. The proportion of the nation's people living in urban places grew from some 40 percent in 1900 to about 63 percent in 1960, using the Census Bureau's "old" urban definition. Under more liberal classification standards of recent years, almost 70 percent of the 1960 population resided in places statistically recognized as urban. In general, the United States Bureau of the Census recognizes as "urban" incorporated places of 2,500 or more inhabitants. Such units are not necessarily, however, "metropolitan" in any usual meaning of the term. In addition to "urban places" the Census Bureau has recognized 213 major physical concentrations within the country as "urbanized areas"—each composed of a central city of 50,000 or more plus contiguous areas which meet specified standards of urban density. In 1960 these urbanized areas contained 54 percent of the American population and 76 percent of the urban population.

This rapid urbanization of the American population is a result of two distinct growth patterns: first, it is the consequence of total growth of American population which has tended to increase average densities and to raise formerly rural places to the status of urban; second, and more important and dramatic, has been a pattern of internal migration closely related to the increasing industrialization of the American economy with, as a corollary, an increasing concentration of that population in the larger urban units.

But even the urbanized area does not include all of the populations normally considered as "metropolitan." Populations in outlying areas physically removed from the contiguous urbanized area may be functionally incorporated within a larger metropolitan complex dominated by the central city. In order to take account of the functionally urban character of these populations, the Census Bureau has additionally established the "Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area," which is made up of the entire county in which the central city is located and includes all contiguous counties which are "essentially metropolitan in character and are socially and economically integrated with the central city county." Two hundred and twelve such areas were designated in 1960; they contained 113 million inhabitants, or about 63 percent of the population of the United States. Included in the SMSA population were 13 million inhabitants officially designated as rural, but the other 100 million constituted almost 80 percent of the entire urban population of the nation.

In these figures we have an insight into significant patterns of population movement and development within the United States since the end of the second World War. The post-war era has been characterized by two distinct and related trends: a pronounced metropolitanization of the American population and, within the expanding metropolitan areas, a most prominent suburbanization of urban inhabitants. Not only did metropolitan areas grow substantially faster than the non-metropolitan sections of the country during the twenty year period 1940 to 1960, but the metropolitan area growth rate was higher in relation to the rest of the country during the second than during the first decade of that period. Metropolitanization of the population, therefore, has been increasing at an increasing rate.

Metropolitan population growth during those twenty years was most notable in the largest of the nation's SMSA's—with a distinct correlation 1940 to 1960 between decreasing size of area and decreasing growth rate. It is the largest and most complex urban clusters that are becoming dominant in the American scene.

As an aside, the growth of individual Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas in different regions of the country has resulted gradually in a coalescence of the outer margins of those individually recognized SMSA's. The result has been to create elongated "city series" which, if not physically, at least functionally and statistically must be considered continuously urban. The most prominent of these urban regions is that which was recognized by Jean Gottman under the term "Megalopolis"—a sprawling, 600-mile city series stretching along the Atlantic Coast from Bangor, Maine, to Norfolk, Virginia. Although the most famous, it is not the only example of the emerging supercity within the United States. The steel district stretching from Pittsburgh through Youngstown, Canton and Akron westward to Cleveland is another developing urban region with a similar string shape; still another is growing up with Chicago as its center stretching north toward Milwaukee and southward around Lake Michigan to southern Michigan, with evidence of a further extension eastward to Detroit. Other examples are beginning to emerge.

The increasingly metropolitan domination of the American urban scene is primarily the result of rapid suburbanization of population and functions, not of the growth of the central cities themselves. Again, here is encountered a pattern of accelerating change. During the decade 1940 to 1950 suburbs grew three times as fast as they had from 1930 to 1940, and they accounted for nearly one-half of the total United States population increase. Nearly two-thirds of the population growth between 1950 and 1960 occurred outside the central cities but within SMSA's.

The attraction of suburban residence—fringe areas have been growing at a rate more than four times that of central cities—has been enhanced by the suburbanization of functions other than the residential.

The outward migration of shopping facilities is a commonly recognized facet of the new pattern of functional suburbanization, as has been the rapid development of industrial establishments outside of their older home—the central cities.

Now let us try to project this metropolitan picture forward, remembering the difficulties inherent in generalization about such a highly particular segment of the population. To begin with, we can expect continued metropolitan area development in the United States, with more people living in these than lived in the entire country in 1930. We can probably expect that some 80 percent of Americans will live on about 7 percent of the land by 1980.

To get more specific, let us look—as did a recent Rand Corporation report—at just the 52 largest SMSA's in the country. With a controlling assumption that there would be continuation of the migration flows that existed in the period 1950 to 1960, the Rand Corporation projected that the total population of the 52 largest SMSA's would grow at the rate of 23 to 24 percent per decade—that is, slightly faster than the population in the nation as a whole. In their study they found that the smaller SMSA's in this group of the largest 52 would probably grow more rapidly than the very largest ones. Further, those metropolitan areas which grew most rapidly between 1940 and 1960 are destined to lose considerable momentum between now and 1980.

Projections indicate that the total population of the 52 largest metropolitan areas will grow from about 80 million in 1960 to some 124 million in 1980. The largest of the lot—New York and Los Angeles—will each contain about 13 million people in 1980, as compared with 10.7 and 6.7 millions in 1960. While we had some 24 SMSA's with more than 1 million inhabitants in 1960, we should have some 40 in that size class by 1980.

Regionally, western SMSA's are projected to grow some 3 to 4 times more rapidly than those of the older, urbanized Northeast, while metropolitan areas of the North Central and the East South Central states will fall somewhere between the two extremes. Metropolitan areas of the South Atlantic and the West South Central regions will resemble more the western pattern.

While the racial composition of the metropolitan areas of the southern states seems likely to remain in balance (with immigration of rural non-whites matched by out-migration of urbanized non-whites to northern cities), the non-white populations of metropolitan areas in the East, North Central and Middle Atlantic states appears destined to grow rapidly—as indeed it is doing now. By 1980, non-whites will make up 20 percent or more of the populations of such places as New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, Cleveland and Indianapolis.

These projections suggest that there will be continued pressure on our largest Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas—pressures of rapid growth in the South and West; pressures from changing racial

balances in the slower growing metropolitan areas of the Northeast and North Central states.

With these admittedly highly generalized metropolitan area projections as background, let us examine some of the patterns of population and economic change within individual idealized metropolitan areas and speculate a bit upon the implications of these changes in planning for public library facilities. Let me, of course, hasten to disclaim any professional competence in your field of special interest. However, I would view provision of library services for a changing metropolitan population as simply one facet of the whole complex problem of public facility provision that is facing metropolitan areas today. I, would therefore, suggest that the increasing size and complexity of our metropolitan areas as well as their changing character poses serious problems of direct concern in planning new and altered library facilities. The primary local population shift which has been often commented upon and which apparently will continue into the future is a general outward movement of families—particularly the younger families—from the central city to the suburban and fringe areas of our metropolitan districts. Let us look briefly at this developing new metropolitan structure.

First, the suburbanites are apparently primarily out-migrants from the central city itself. These fringe populations—amounting in 1960 to some 50 percent of all metropolitan area populations—are in the process of creating a substantially different way of life and attitude toward the city from that of their more urban predecessors. For one thing they are, in general, wealthier than the urban populations left behind. They have larger than average families, higher educational levels, a more informal style of life. They are more dependent upon the private automobile, and find to an ever greater extent in the fringe areas themselves not only the business districts, but also the employment opportunities which formerly only the central city could provide.

Along with the outward movement of population has come the suburbanization of commercial and manufacturing activities formerly dominantly located within the older central city areas. This acceleration of outward movement is accompanied by an increasing per capita demand for land. Metropolitan areas, in fact, are sprawling even faster than they are gaining in population. Thanks to modern subdivision control ordinances, each family acquiring a new house today uses about twice as much land as did a new family thirty years ago. Obviously, tremendous amounts of land are consumed by provision of parking lots and the massive one-floor clusters characteristic of commercial shopping centers. It is the automobile which has made possible and tolerable the vast dispersion of formerly concentrated activities to the sprawling margins of our metropolitan areas.

While these changes are occurring in the peripheral zone, the central city is undergoing different, although equally striking, changes of its own. With suburbanization of the formerly urban population the central city finds its youngest, wealthiest, most educated, and ablest citizens now dispersed. Behind, in the vacuum they have left, a new group is taking over—white and, particularly, non-white rural immigrants of much lower educational and economic standards. This new urban population places different and strikingly heavier demands upon the agencies of public service and support than the now departed group that they replaced; at the same time, of course, they are much less capable of contributing to the cost of those services. Their lack of ability to contribute, commensurate to their numbers, to the economic support of the city through property taxes is echoed by the out-migration of those heavy contributors, the commercial and industrial activities, which are also suburbanizing. The central city—facing an increasingly serious situation of economic, social, and physical deterioration—is forced increasingly to undertake massive programs of urban renewal in order to reconstitute itself as a viable unit.

Now what are the implications of these new metropolitan patterns for library planners? Here, of course, I can only suggest some of the things that have occurred to an observer of the urban scene and must leave the evaluation of suggestions to you.

First, for the suburban and fringe zone. Here is the active growth zone featuring the young, relatively well-to-do and educated group with large families, great mobility, and a new pattern of casualness. Obviously, among the public facilities of which they are in greatest need are more, better, and properly located libraries. But where, exactly, should those facilities be located; how large should they be; how are they to be paid for; what total area and population should they be designed to serve? Again, I do not pretend to know any of the answers; but we do know that people and activities have been moving outward and that the central business district—the traditional home of the public library in the large and small towns of the nation—is no longer effectively acting as the attracter, the focus, of the people the library is designed to serve. Indeed, in our sprawling fringe zones of growing metropolitan areas, the whole concept of municipally centered library facilities would appear to have lost its meaning with the proliferation of residential subdivisions and small towns, many without a natural focus of their own.

It would seem logical then that new library facilities should follow people and functions outward—perhaps retaining their traditional orientation towards commercial districts by becoming part of shopping center complexes where accessibility, convergence of clientele, and available parking would all be desirable locational factors. Since the technique of shopping center design includes rigorous analysis of population characteristics and numbers, driving times, etc., library

planners could conceivably benefit from the plans and data of the center promoters in evaluating the size and type of facility required. But, remember, these new outlying shopping centers are not oriented towards the market potential of a particular municipality but rather toward the potential of a segment of the entire metropolitan fringe area. Conceivably, therefore, cooperative library districts are going to be required in order to secure the financial support for these new facilities if they are to serve the population now existing in—or moving to—the peripheral areas.

At the same time, the central city also shows a changed situation with respect to public facilities and, here, particularly, library facilities. The new in-migrants—though theoretically desperately in need of the facilities and services of the municipal library—are not prepared to make full use of established library facilities. At the same time, the erosion of the economic base of the city has cut tax revenue and reduced the ability of the community to support libraries when it must increase and support public health services, police and fire protection, etc. As frequently happens, a desirable service must expect to play second fiddle to an imperative service.

The redevelopment of the city through some slum clearance and urban redevelopment also poses problems, for frequently such slum clearance is resulting in replacement of the older generation of users by apartment structures designed for middle and upper income families. These groups—"suburban" in their economic and educational levels—are not prepared to accept or tolerate the public library facilities that satisfied slum dwellers who preceded them on the same location. Provision must be made for the redevelopment of public facilities—including libraries—to correspond to the redevelopment of housing.

These, then, are the general patterns of metropolitan population change and urban development that appear likely over the next fifteen years, and a few of the problems and challenges for library planners that, to me at least, these changes would seem to imply.

GOVERNMENT IN THE METROPOLIS

Charles Press

Iron River is a community in Michigan's relatively depressed Upper Peninsula. In reality, it is five different cities, villages or townships with a total population of around 10,000 huddled in one relatively compact urbanized area. The depressed economy of this iron-mining community led to suggestions that these legal units merge. In this microcosm, there erupted at this time, the same bitter arguments about consolidation which are common when one of America's great cities attempts to annex suburbanites. The smaller suburban units rang with familiar arguments about being swallowed up in a big city, the same arguments one would hear if Chicago proposed to merge with a few of its suburbs. Thus, what appears to most outsiders as one social and economic community, and certainly is so for many purposes important to its residents, is splintered among five governments for what seem logical reasons to local residents. Those logical reasons which reformers too often have regarded as irrelevant or even pathological, are at the heart of the problem of resistance to integration in small as well as large communities. Before we can talk very confidently about the future of any urban complex, we must try to understand why what seems to be a single city to outsiders is viewed so often by inhabitants as a variety of units that require legal separateness.

I

First, let us examine the basis on which an urban complex is viewed by outsiders as a single entity for which a single government would be desirable. Most observers assume this is the case when an urban complex appears to be a single, interdependent, social and economic community. When they see it as having a center at which social and economic decisions are made that affect all parts of the complex, and in turn when they see that the reactions of the parts influence the pattern of decision making at the center, it seems to them a single community. This is the logic of John Dewey: when the indirect consequences of acts of others are recognized and it appears desirable that an attempt be made to regulate them, a public comes into existence.¹ Such a public requires a government so that it can shape its own destiny.

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Deciding upon the limits of influence of actions taken at the center of an urban complex has its practical problems. If communication alone is used as a measure, one would include within the boundaries of the Great City the circulation area of its Sunday newspapers, the broadcast coverage for its major league ball team, or even, for the largest of America's cities, the readership area of such a journal as The New Yorker magazine. In a real sense persons in outlying areas have their lives affected significantly by such communications, and to that degree are part of the larger city and have some right to influence decisions made there. But such influence can perhaps most appropriately make itself felt through economic actions.

For logical government administration, however, the boundaries of metropolitan areas are more commonly set by transportation patterns—the trip to and from work, shopping or recreation, or daily delivery routes of department stores and other local businesses. Even setting of limits by such measures results in a fuzziness at the fringes since some commuters go far out into the countryside as do some local merchants, and a sizeable minority of residents only come occasionally to the metropolis.

Attempts to improve on the definition have sometimes emphasized natural geographic features as boundaries, population densities, and overlapping memberships of area residents. But no single definition is completely satisfactory, though John Dewey's notions seem to me to provide a good rough guide—where decisions made at different parts of an urban complex unexpectedly affect significantly the lives of residents in other parts of that complex and they recognize and wish to control that effect, the conditions for a governmental community are present.

As you are no doubt aware, the above definitions are too complex for easy use and the Census Bureau has provided a way out of the difficulty. Their definition of the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area is also a rough but useful one for delimiting the boundaries of Great Cities. The SMSA includes roughly a city of 50,000 or more plus the county in which it is located, and any other counties that the Census Bureau determines to be socially and economically integrated with it. The use of county boundaries causes some problems. Thus one hundred and eighty miles of largely desert area lying between Los Angeles county and the gambling tables of Las Vegas must be defined as metropolitan. But these disadvantages are minor and are more than made up for by a definition which most social scientists agree encompasses what they would include within the boundaries of a metropolitan area and because it makes available to them a great variety of census data about the people living within these boundaries.

The 225 SMSA's vary widely in size and this makes the definition too broad for many purposes. For example, in 1960 the SMSA's varied from 51,850 in Meriden, Connecticut, to 10,694,633 in the New

York City metropolitan area; a variation of over 200 percent. And within the larger SMSA's are many cities which could be SMSA's in their own right if they were as lucky in choosing their location as Pine Bluff, Arkansas; Anderson, Indiana; or Salem, Oregon. But this fact is less important for our purpose, which is to delimit the boundaries of what might logically be considered a local government unit. Each of the SMSA's, large or small, has a center where social and economic decisions affecting the whole area in significant and unplanned ways are made, and where reactions take place which suggest the desirability of control of such decisions as well as counter-decisions that influence what occurs at the center.

II

The above logic was once commonly applied to the government of metropolitan areas. The residents of a Great City lived within that city, even in fairly recent times. Let me illustrate with the history of Grand Rapids, Michigan. The city was incorporated in 1850 in a shape two miles-by-two miles square. Seven years later it added a half mile strip to each of the square's sides to increase the city to roughly a three miles-by-three miles square. This annexation was thus ringlike, similar to the way rings appear on a tree (if you can for the moment imagine a tree with a square trunk). Thirty-four years later, in 1891, another ringlike annexation took place, but for the first time breaks occurred along the boundary. A half mile strip was added across the top and along the west side. Another strip was added along most of the south and a little over half of the east side. But note that, even with the breaks, this 1891 annexation again was of the encircling type. After this point a change occurs. In 1916, a small strip was added to the south, and between 1924 and 1927, small bits and parcels were added in each direction. And this was the end of annexation of any consequence until 1960.

What had happened between 1891 and 1925 when, following the old pattern, one would expect another encircling annexation? One clue is that in 1924, East Grand Rapids was incorporated as a wealthy residential suburb independent of the city. It stood as a monument to the automobile. At the beginning of the age of the motor car, it was possible for the wealthy at least to move away from the fringes of the central city, incorporate a high tax base residential community, and provide a high level of urban services. The suburb had no industry, prided itself on the beauty of its homes, and has always had a first-rate school system.

What was possible for the wealthy in the nineteen-twenties became possible for the middle class by the end of the depression and for the lower middle class after World War II. Technology made it practical to leapfrog settlements to any place in the territory

surrounding a city, with the only condition limiting such settlements being that they be accessible enough by car to permit commuting. Blacktop roads became the key to urbanization. No longer was it necessary to settle on the city's fringes to receive urban services or be close enough to trolley and bus lines to commute. Other technological advances encouraged this movement: the septic tank, new well-drilling techniques, and even the power lawn mower which made the large lawns of suburbia tolerable for those not quite wealthy enough to employ a yard man.

When urban sprawl became feasible for the middle class, the pattern of government in metropolitan areas changed. Suburban incorporations increased after World War II. In many states such incorporation offered special legal advantages; in Michigan, for example, small suburbs are dramatically overrepresented on County Boards of Supervisors as compared to urbanized townships. The process of incorporation also frequently offered tax advantages if a particularly lucrative plant located in the boundaries of the new city, or, as was sometimes the case, the new city was incorporated around the particularly lucrative plant. In addition, for many of the new middle class, suburbia represented a status leap from ethnic communities and the politics of the big city.

All such factors contributed to proliferation within government and the rejection of the notion of one government to administer services for a single social and economic community. One should not conclude, however, that all suburban communities were doggedly able to resist merger with the central city. Between 1950 and 1960, three-quarters of the nation's largest central cities annexed territory and half of these had annexed more than ten percent of their 1960 population in the previous ten-year period. One out of five cities with more than 5,000 population annexed territory in 1962 alone.² The compilations in the Municipal Year Book reveal that annexations have been on the increase in recent years. We may hypothesize that economic problems may have occasionally blighted dreams of suburban independence. For some suburbanites the easiest way out has been return to the central city through annexation. But the dominant trend is still one of suburban independence. For every annexation that is successful, several more attempts fail. And seldom does an incorporated suburb merge with the central city or even with another suburb. At this point the battle lines are still drawn between suburbs and the central city.

III

What then, encourages intergovernmental cooperation, if not integration, within metropolitan areas? It appears that such cooperation is most likely among units with similar characteristics when the

service relates to life styles. On the other hand when services have little effect on community life styles the technical and engineering problems determine patterns of cooperation.³ Dye found that annexations occurred more frequently when the difference in social distance between central city and suburb was small, and less frequently when the reverse was true. Similarly Williams and his colleagues found that cooperation in respect to such value-impregnated services as schools and zoning occurred among communities of similar social-economic status. On the other hand, in respect to traffic control and transportation, sewage treatment and obtaining water supplies, the technical engineering requirements generally determined the patterns of cooperation. Thus the communities along the river were the obvious location for sewage treatment plants, and suburbs of all status levels cooperated with such communities in establishing an integrated sewage disposal system.

Cooperation is thus not shunned for its own sake. It may even occur among differing units when benefits to all are clear as in matters affecting health and safety or even in cases when substantial economies may be gained. But those mutual arrangements that loosen local control over life-style kinds of services are those viewed most suspiciously.

What, then, are the sensitive services that residents see as influencing the way they live in important ways? The most important ones seem to be zoning and housing regulations. Schools also qualify as important, though sometimes because of school locations, mergers may occur without disturbing local arrangements. Through control of these services, residents hope to protect, it appears, what they regard as distinctive ways of life. Residents of a city see it as a variety of subcultures, distinguishable in important ways. Each represents a slightly different view of the way life may be lived. Some are regarded by residents as extremely desirable ways of life, and residents of these communities are those that most jealously guard their independence. It is this notion that preserves five little units of government in Iron River and more than six hundred in the New York SMSA.

IV

In the past, all subcultures existed within one great city and this is still the case today within central cities and, indeed, within sections of many of the suburbs. Many of these sections have their distinctive names. Social scientists have only recently begun to devise methods for locating and identifying them. Nathan Glazer and Daniel P. Moynihan, somewhat overwhelmed by the heterogeneity of subcultures within the legal boundaries of New York City, categorize the result as too complex "to hold still in the mind."⁴

It is, however, just such heterogeneity that attracts persons to a Great City. The larger the city, the greater the smorgasbord of choices available. In New York City and its metropolitan area one imagines almost every combination of characteristics might be located somewhere.

What are the characteristics upon which subcultures are generally constructed? The chief controlling factors are those that limit residence location for certain residents: income, and racial-ethnic characteristics. The first is related to such factors as social status and education. A third variable of obvious importance is composition of family. Those with children demand, if possible, types of housing that are large enough for them and neighborhoods that are safe. Those who are retired or without children may prefer apartment life.

Using these three characteristics, Shevky and Bell devised a system of social area analysis, and through the use of census reports were able to classify every part of the metropolitan area into subcultures according to their mixes of these three variables.⁵ The economists Hoover and Vernon in their study of the New York City metropolitan area chose similar variables: job type, income level, and age composition of the household to explain residential choice.⁶ They argued that the distinction between blue- and white-collar workers and the census types within each of these broad classes appear sometimes to differentiate more precisely than income. For Glazer and Moynihan, ethnic background of residents is a crucial variable that explains the significant subcultures of New York City.⁷ They note how social, economic and political patterns vary among different ethnic groups; how Italians, for example, resist residential invasion by Negroes and Puerto Ricans and continue to live in greater numbers near the center of Manhattan than have other descendants of immigrant groups. They also stress the importance of religion as a differentiator, particularly with groups having parochial schools. Such ethnic groupings, they argue, have not melted into the larger society but rather have developed outlooks somewhat different both from those of natives of the country of origin and from those of white, Anglo-Saxon protestants.

Other characteristics also lead to differentiation but these are of secondary importance. A colleague and I did a study of the urbanites moving into a farming area on the fringes of Lansing, Michigan.⁸ Most of these were blue-collar workers in the city's auto plants. But we found they had two distinctive characteristics: they wanted some small acreage to cultivate on their own, and four out of five households had a husband or wife who had been raised on a farm. As might be anticipated, these residents tended to view with disfavor the further urbanization of the township. Their specialized subculture

was a miniature imitation of a farm community. Other specialized demands are those of the Bohemian, and even those of the suburban gardener, but again these are subcultures of secondary significance.

Those characteristics that seem of major importance in forming subcultures are thus race and ethnicity (including in these the factor of religion), occupation (which is closely related to income, educational level and social status), and family size and age. On this basis most residents of a metropolitan area sort themselves out and, as the result of this sorting out process, distinctive life styles evolve.

The political importance of such subcultures lies in the distinctive viewpoints that they nourish. Each provides a distinctive set of daily experiences for its residents and these experiences help shape the political and social outlook. Take for example, the experience of living in an apartment house as described in Sally Benson's *Junior Miss*.⁹ One study reports that high cost apartment residents in St. Louis were more likely than homeowners to take what one might describe as a civic viewpoint; that is, they favored governmental reforms even when such reforms cost money, and they voted to improve services even when the benefit affected them very little.¹⁰ Or imagine what the experience of living in or growing up in a Negro slum in a northern city must teach in respect to politics. What kinds of political response are likely among citizens who are continually affected by patterns of discrimination? The writings of Baldwin and Ellison suggest the answer.¹¹

I suggest that citizens are influenced by their experience in developing what I call a political ideology. It is not that experience determines the viewpoint. Man's rationality is not irrelevant. Different individuals undergoing similar experiences respond in somewhat different ways. But over a period of time subgroupings form their own peculiar viewpoints. Folk ideologies grow just as do folk songs.

Such ideologies help individuals to cope with their environment and orient themselves within it. They serve as a shorthand guide that gives them a picture of reality and suggests what should and should not be done.

The elements of such ideologies are the valuational, the cognitive, and the emotional. The most important is the valuational because the functional purpose of an ideology is to tell how life ought to be lived; that is, in Plato's terms, what is the just society. The cognitive element is the picture of reality that the ideology conveys. The emotional element is the ideology's symbolic content.

Note how a political ideology of discrimination against a minority group functions. The cognitive content argues that in reality the minority group members are inferior generally both morally and intellectually. The valuational part thus suggests patterns of avoidance as appropriate and just. Associated with this viewpoint are symbols

that will arouse emotional reactions. The weakest part of any ideology clearly is the cognitive since this can be challenged by argument or, more often, is directly challenged by experience. Once doubt creeps in with respect to the picture of reality, the other parts of the ideology are weakened much as the religious beliefs of freshman on a small college campus are shaken by biblical criticism of Jonah or another Bible story. But the breaking down of an ideology is seldom easy or common. Experience may challenge it, yet modification rather than obliteration is generally the result.

The ideologies that grow out of the experiences of distinctive subcultures provide, I am arguing, the element that has been so often overlooked when metropolitan integration has been proposed. Technology and the law have given metropolitan residents the opportunity to create subcultures with independent governmental status, and residents of metropolitan areas have responded to the invitation. The residents of Great Cities have parceled themselves out over the countryside in a variety of subcommunities, living a variety of lifestyle patterns designed to appeal to a variety of specialized tastes. Residents who have chosen the kind of existence they prefer to live and have met the requirements of membership in such subcultures are loath to risk change. And the viewpoints that are developed and reinforced in such subcultures reinforce this tendency.

V

What, then, is the probability that metropolitan areas will become more integrated governmental units?

Some have hoped for the growth of a common metropolitan-wide viewpoint based on the common experiences of living within the metropolis. The sociologist Louis Wirth in an important essay described the city as leading to a way of life emphasizing impersonality and interdependence and resulting in a distinctive urban outlook.¹² I would agree with him and with others who see life of the suburban commuter as also leading to its distinctive outlook.¹³ And I would also argue that such viewpoints have political implications. The basis of the New Deal was, I think, built on experiences of big city residents, as Lubell so well describes.¹⁴ I also suspect that the more bland politics of today owe a good deal to the viewpoint and experiences of suburbanites.¹⁵ But these areawide viewpoints will not, I think, lead to governmental integration in metropolitan areas. First, these viewpoints tend to divide further the large city from suburbia and thus encourage division rather than integration. Second, they seem more relevant for extra-metropolitan rather than intra-metropolitan political relations. They serve to unite metropolitans against non-metropolitans, but are less helpful in encouraging consolidation within the metropolis.

Others place their hope in a blurring of divisions that encourage subcultures. That the divisions based on ethnicity are growing less sharp is probably true. Ethnicity is losing some of its hold, even though the over-optimistic prophecies of the melting-pot have proven false. But enough differences will remain for some time to come to encourage division. The outlook for blurring class lines is equally uncertain. And it must be remembered that some persons have a stake in exacerbating subcultural divisions. The realtor has, I believe, kept the element of race primary in the sorting out of Negroes within a metropolis. In some cases primacy is given to occupation and income rather than race, and in the process at least some of the tension involved with this subculture is reduced. But residential integration is still relatively uncommon. It is fair to add that many Negroes themselves have a stake in preserving subcultural isolation for Negroes. Besides the Negro businessman, there exists the possibility that within the next generation or so a few northern cities may have Negro mayors. Also, most suburban officials, businessmen, and newspaper editors feel governmental independence is a worthy means of preserving an exclusive clientele. The likelihood that subcultural differences will diminish in the future enough to encourage widespread metropolitan integration appears unlikely.

The alternative is that some force may encourage greater governmental integration. Two such forces exist. One is the pressure of state and federal governments interested in an integrated attack on social and engineering problems of Great Cities. Particularly relevant, because they are spreading gradually to their suburban areas, are such social problems as substandard housing, conditions of poverty, crime and other forms of social disorganization. An efficient expenditure of resources requires greater cooperation and coordination among units and pressure for this will increase though consolidation is not likely to occur.

The other force is that already mentioned—that of economic circumstance. Those areas experiencing severe service and tax problems are most likely to favor mergers.

We may gain some insight from the analysis of the forming of federal states out of separate entities.¹⁶ Riker argues that the element crucial in bringing about such mergers has been a threat that affected all parties. This is not to deny that mergers are more likely between subcultures with similar viewpoints, but to emphasize that a common threat is probably needed even in these cases to bring action.

That such threats will occur in the future seems likely—the need for a degree of cooperation will become obvious to all. Technology once provided a measure of independence, but the day of the septic tank and the individual well is coming to an end and the trip into town is taking longer. Integrated governmental effort in the

form of massive engineering feats of one or another layer of government are now quite common. And someday, I suspect, interdependence in respect to social problems will also become more obvious. And the solving of such problems requires the areawide integration of such sensitive services as zoning and housing. For this reason, I regard the consolidation of Great Cities as ultimately desirable, and indeed in one form or another inevitable.

The form, I suspect, will be a jerry-built one. Local governmental units will continue to exist even when they no longer make very many significant decisions. The trend is toward larger and larger units doing the significant acts. And some such units are unusual. Thus, the Detroit area has the Huron-Clinton Park authority covering six counties. Perhaps the ultimate in providing largescale services while maintaining a modicum of local independence in respect to zoning is the Lakewood plan of California, whereby local units contract for services from other larger units of government. Whatever the particular device, the trend is to bigness.

Given the realities of subcultures, I am suggesting that the Great Cities should strive for whatever forms of areawide governmental integration that seem possible. The criticisms of functional integration of separate services are valid. No doubt a multi-purpose federalism like that of Toronto or even of Dade County, Florida, is preferable to a Robert Moses type of operation that acts independently of all other municipal services and grabs off only the most lucrative financial results.

Nevertheless, my choice is for action even through only partially suitable forms of local government in preference to stalemate.

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METROPOLITAN PROCESSES: AN OVERVIEW*

Philip H. Ennis

In this brief review of some of the major social developments in the metropolis, two important difficulties should be noted at the outset. First, the subject is so vast and has been studied by so many different kinds of specialists that there is little standardization of concepts and generalizations. I can give, therefore, only a partial view of the scene, indicating the variety of approaches to metropolitan problems.

Second, even if we were able to assimilate all the perspectives, the implications for policy planning are far from clear. There are too many contingencies open; there are too many voices demanding their own solutions. The situation is too fluid and too diverse. Indeed, a major conclusion I have come to concerning the future of the metropolis is that each situation is different; the diversity of history and the present variety of population, social organization and economic base is so great that generalizations as to social processes in the metropolitan areas have to be at such a level of abstraction that they are likely to be of little help in concrete planning. They can provide at best a general orientation for policy planning. At worst, such generalizations floating above everyday practice can become a screen for mindless, short-termed expediency. Later in this paper I will discuss, as one of the metropolitan processes, some related problems of decision-making in the planning field.

Before we focus on the metropolitan region, however, there are some general social trends and processes in the nation as a whole which might be useful as background for understanding what is happening in the great urban centers.

The first and most general of these processes is the permanence of change in American life, stemming in large measure from the tremendous growth of science. The institutional complex we call science is impelled continually to challenge previous ideas and practice. As scientific methods reach into the professions, industry, indeed every aspect of life, then more of our lives will be subject to its consequences and continual change. Several other structural features

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of our society make for rapid, and in large measure, unpredictable change. One is the fact that there is free or nearly free market competition in many areas of life, in addition to those commodity markets we generally think of as being highly volatile. The result is that when the better mouse trap is invented the old one very quickly becomes a museum piece. The way Midway Airport in Chicago went from the busiest in the world to a deserted lot in less than a year after O'Hare Field opened illustrates the point. The aggregate effect of each airline's competitive fears had the inadvertent effect of almost totally retiring a facility that could have sustained at least a major part of the traffic, but there appears little allocative balance. I do not know why it is the case, but this kind of market situation tends to be all or nothing, feast or famine. An analogous firestorm effect occurs among competitors of different kinds, be they cities, schools, hospitals, or the like. If one unit tries a new process and it is successful, there is a rush among all the units to catch up. Thus, for example, in education there has been a succession of innovations that have swept school systems like waves over the past half century: the teaching machine, the language laboratory, and reaching back a little in time, the textbook. It is difficult, therefore, to know in advance which change is going to make a difference. Some innovations will catch on immediately and totally, others will encounter great resistance but slowly spread, still others will be stopped dead in their tracks before they really start. Why this should be so is a great puzzle. One kind of answer will be suggested below.

Another basic feature of American society that makes it so prone to restless change and a sense of rootlessness is our separation of generations, both spatially and in terms of personal interaction. This is most visible at early and at old age levels. An instance of the effect of such generational segregation occurred in the recent history of popular music where, for reasons too complex to go into here, the previously non-age-graded white popular music of the nation within the course of a few years had been sharply differentiated into teen-aged rock and roll, definitely in counter-distinction to grown-up music. This upset then proceeded within five years to destroy long-standing barriers between regional and ethnic, mass and minority musical forms. We thus now have such a semi-homogenized *mélange* of musical styles as to guarantee a future of unstable combinations and recombinations appealing to audiences who themselves are undergoing complex taste realignments. At the other extreme of the life cycle, the segregation of older people into "golden-years" colonies, be they homes, cities or indeed whole regions, further separates the young generation from the old. It will be recalled here that one of the most plausible explanations of the conservatism of the French peasantry has been the fact that the children are in the

company of the grandparents while the mother and father work the farm and worry about the daily struggles of land, money, and markets. This skip-generation education imparts a set of values and perspectives one generation behind the immediate practical demands of everyday life. If the young depend on the society of the present generation, as they do with us, the past does not reach as immediately, and as strongly. This issue is related to one of the most important controversies that exist in American culture, a controversy that stems from the intersection of two other very general trends at work in the society. The first is a continued and accelerating emphasis on personal achievement as the basis for distributing the rewards available in society. Achievement calls for specialized competence, and this in turn means formal education. The scope of educational growth is seen in the following figures, showing the economic side of the shift.

TABLE 1a
EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION; 1910, 1960

	1910	1960	Per Cent Increase
a) Percent of GNP for education	1.61	4.92	206
b) Dollars per student	77.66	519.50	569
c) Dollars per cap.	16.58	133.97	708
d) GNP per cap.	\$992	\$2,721	174

(b), (c), and (d) used constant 1957-9 dollars.

^aBased on Tables IV-3, 4, 5, 6 in Machlup, Fritz, The Production and Distribution of Knowledge in the United States, Princeton, N.J., Princeton University Press, 1962, pp. 71-72, 78-79.

This is clearly a tremendous change. In terms of people and achievement, in 1910 in the five- to nineteen-year old age group there were 17.5 million persons enrolled in schools; by 1960 this had grown to 41.1 million, an increase of 135 percent. Half that increase is due to population increase, but half is the increase due to getting more people in school earlier and keeping them there longer.¹ More dramatically, the average person twenty-five to twenty-nine years old was an elementary school graduate in 1910, but by 1960 the average member of this significant age group was a high school graduate.²

There are complex and explosive implications in this growth. First is the increased public, that is governmental, involvement in education at all levels, especially at the Federal level. It ranges from the school lunch program to the support given for building medical schools and laboratories. It includes the collection and dissemination of all kinds of statistical information and it supports vast research efforts both in schools and about schools. The public commitment to education is seen in the fact that only 38 percent of enrolled students in 1900 were in public schools, but by 1960 this figure had risen to 58 percent. The Federal stake in education, as measured in dollar terms is shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2^a
FEDERAL SUPPORT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

	Per Cent of Higher Educa- tion Income From Federal Government	Dollars From Federal Government *	Dollars/Student From Federal Government
1930.	3.7	35.6	32.33
1958.	15.2	712.4	218.59
Percent increase . .	-	1,901	576

*Millions of dollars—constant 1957-59.

^aMachlup, pp. 78, 85, Tables IV-5, IV-10.

Given the rapid increase in numbers of students, the increase in governmental support is even faster. With the passage of the new Elementary and Secondary Education Act by the 89th Congress, an additional \$1.3 billion a year will be employed *to encourage local districts to narrow the gap between rich and poor, damp down tension between Catholic and non-Catholic parents, and bring new kinds of teachers and new ideas about teaching into their classrooms."³

Thus the historic mission of the public education movement, to be a major brake to the family and class transmission of inherited advantage by insuring equality of opportunity, is now national policy. Coupled with the federal commitment to civil rights, this moves the public schools to the forefront of "position" politics, and in one of the rare instances in American political life, conjoins it to what have

been called "style" issues.*⁴ Thus the politics of education has become a major part of all contemporary domestic politics.

This brings us to a second major trend in American life, which is very general and diffuse and has implications too extended to compress easily at the moment. It is the continuing, restless development of our social identity. There are on-going changes in the ways Americans define themselves. The boundaries of social homogeneity and diversity, in other words, are undergoing steady change. At one time, for instance, if you knew a man was Irish and from Boston, you could predict a great deal about his social class, religion, education, and more important, his politics, his friends and enemies; in short, a great deal about his attitudes and behavior. And if a person's self-identification is in large part determined by these group affiliations and preferences then our national identity is certainly changing, for the correlations among such background characteristics are declining, as is their ability to predict behavior and preferences. There is moreover a great deal of diversity as to what should be the important boundaries dividing self from others, and one community from the next. The tendency is for likes to cluster together, defining themselves by the bases of congregating, and most decisively, trying to pass on to their children the bases of their self-identification and its advantages, be it money, family position, or ethnic tradition. In this effort, a major weapon is the local control of the schools and all sorts of strategies to keep its doors closed to "outsiders."

Thus the great national commitment to achievement comes into conflict with the slow process of reshaping the lines of American identity. And this conflict, while occurring at all levels and areas of the nation, is concentrated most explosively in the great metropolitan centers, where too often the racial aspect heats up the clash to an even higher point. What emerges is a set of conflicts at one time local, now on a national level. We will describe some of these conflicts in the discussion of metropolitan trends.

The first point is that a great number of things have converged to give metropolitan problems new visibility. The great urban center now appears as the new locus of action on the American scene, one that will probably rework the master images and ideals that have until recently been largely rural and small town in origin.

A significant threshold was crossed in this process when the Supreme Court entered that previously avoided "political thicket, legislative reapportionment," and when the Congress authorized a new Cabinet level Department of Urban Affairs. Thus the Federal power

*"Position" issues involve material interests, e.g., Taft Hartley and price control. "Style" issues vary considerably from place to place and time to time, generally involving ethnicity, religion, and racial themes.

and the Federal dollar are committed emphatically to the metropolitan area as a major political unit. Despite the difficulties, that unit now has more leverage to carry out its programs than ever before, and neither the recalcitrance of the still rural-dominated state legislatures or a change of party in the White House is likely to stop the process of metropolitan development.

A few gross facts about the metropolitan area should be kept in mind. In the sixty years from 1900 to 1960, the population of the United States has shifted from about one-third in the metropolitan areas and two-thirds in smaller cities and rural areas to the reverse, two-thirds in metropolitan areas and one-third in the rest of the country. Yet there has been a remarkable stability of population density over that time within the smaller metropolitan areas in the first ring of counties as well as in the second and remaining counties.⁵ This means that the metropolitan area grows by a steady spread of intensive land use into the more remote parts of the country. The much feared human sardine packing does not appear to have happened, but we do find persistent border clashes over political readjustment of boundaries, the redistribution of land uses and revenues as the city moves out and bumps up against the surrounding suburbs and smaller satellite cities, and as the movement of people continues as unevenly as it has.

It is this uneven distribution of population movement and its coincidence with the unequal distribution of educational resources that is the basis of many of the city's problems. During the past decade the white population of the nation's central cities increased by only 5 percent while the corresponding non-white population increased by 51 percent. In the cities of the Northeast this difference is even more striking, for whites in these central cities actually decreased in number.⁶

There has been a steady movement of Negroes from the rural areas of the South to urban areas, almost entirely the great metropolitan areas of the North and West. Given present rates, ultimately up to eight out of ten Negroes will live outside the South. In these metropolitan non-southern communities the educational level of the Negro is still low, with over 50 percent never having attended high school. The overall educational attainment of the Negro is a mixed story of rapid catching up and of continued frustration. The data in the following table illustrates its complexities.

Between 1920 and 1940 the rate of gain by young Negroes was more rapid than it was for whites, and they had especially caught up at the college level. Yet one wonders how meaningful these figures are given the generally acknowledged low quality of the all-Negro small college. Still the gains are impressive as omens of the future, since this kind of approximation of equalization does not at all obtain

TABLE 3^a
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

	Median School Years	Per Cent With		
		<5 Years	High School: 4 Years or More	College: 4 Years or More
<u>Age 25-29</u>				
White: 1960	12.3	2.2	63.7	11.8
1940	10.7	3.4	41.2	6.4
1920	8.5	12.9	22.0	4.5
Non- White: 1960	10.8	7.2	38.6	5.4
1940	7.0	27.0	12.3	1.6
1920	5.4	44.6	6.3	1.2
<u>Age 25 and over</u>				
White: 1960	10.8	6.7	43.2	8.1
1940	8.7	10.9	26.1	4.9
Non- White: 1960	8.2	23.5	21.8	3.5
1940	5.8	41.8	7.7	1.3

^aFolger and Nam, Table 5, p. 254.

among older people (those over 25 years). These figures, however, do not tell the whole story; the education of the urban poor in large metropolitan school systems is a vital problem not only because it reflects the struggle for local control, but also because of the charges that the educational system and the educators themselves are the greatest barriers to achievement, rather than being its guarantors. With respect to reading, there is statistical evidence for this; Barton and Wilder report that as children from poor homes proceed through the first six grades a greater and greater percentage fall further behind in their reading skills. Among middle and upper class children this tendency does not appear to any appreciable degree.⁷

The same kind of finding, more sharply specified, was reported by Kenneth Clark, for the poor Negro youth of Harlem who found that:

“ . . . the intelligence quotient of the children in Harlem schools actually declines between the third grade and the eighth Whatever intelligence quotient a child brings to the third grade is in part a survival of all these disasters [those involved in living in

Harlem]; then he sits five more years in school and his I.Q. is the less for the experience of education."⁸

The problem of quality education in the metropolis, then, is a central one for the schools. There are in addition, however, secondary consequences for a whole series of other adjacent institutions including libraries, social welfare and service agencies, the professional associations, and even industrial and business corporations, all of whom have to worry about training and retraining a work force capable of staffing the new technology, who will read the millions of books coming from the publishers, and who have to learn to keep out of trouble. This trouble is, of course, the result of many different things, including the streams of migration mentioned and the difficulties of creating high level educational institutions capable of matching the needs of the population.

It must be recalled that there is a higher rate of unemployment among urban male Negroes than almost any other group. This situation threatens serious, even dangerous, problems since most of the immigration to the city is by young people, the best educated as well as those from the deepest parts of the South. These are explosive ingredients. Yet as the urban Negro finds better places in the work force, as he seems to be doing to some degree, the demand for better housing will increase. Horace Hamilton concludes from these demographic facts that the old corporate limits of Northern and Western cities cannot hold the 8.3 million Negro migrants predicted to arrive in the period 1960-80, and that the almost inevitable movement to the heretofore white suburbs will create great strains on community leadership at all levels of government.

Before we proceed, this point should be made: in spite of the racial problem, and all the other ones as well—the great metropolis works. It provides a living—and a good one at that—for millions; it has not choked itself to death by its own traffic or its own pollution of air and water; it has not turned its residents into anonymous and rootless neurotics. The family is still strong, children are getting educated, culture and industry flourish. I do not want to appear pollyanna-ish; but since I think the human species operates at something like a 2 percent level of efficiency at best, the metropolitan complex does not appear to have slipped very far beneath that minimal standard.

This is very much a global generalization, its utility being primarily anxiety reduction. Let us proceed then with a more detailed review of what is happening to the great cities, insofar as we can generalize from this middle distance.

Hans Blumenfeld reports on the trends in the major ecological and functional aspects of the metropolis as follows: the central business district is, by and large, holding its own as a dominant focus

of activity even in spite of some tendencies for some metropolitan areas to develop strong specialized satellite subcenters. Moreover the power of the central business district is seen in the failure of the much hailed and much feared Eastern megalopolis (stretching from Boston to Washington) to materialize; each of the major cities appears to be holding its own suburban rings within its orbit.⁹

There are continued changes within the central business district toward stability of boundaries and land use, and a gradual differentiation into more specialized and complex functions. Thus industry, warehousing, and those white-collar businesses not based on local contact are moving out, increasingly replaced by professional business and governmental services with their secondary and tertiary support facilities. The implication for libraries here is clear; more special information services are in fact appearing within these complex organizations, and the reliance on public and semi-public libraries in the central city for specialized information is clearly increasing.

A second major function of the city, manufacturing, has increasingly moved out of the central part of the city. Automation, cost differentials and the increase of parking and expansion space have resulted (and also caused) the manufacturing-land-use per worker to increase in the modern factory one hundred-fold compared to the old loft sweat shops. The central city, therefore, cannot contain manufacturing plants and its in-and-out movements have affected the largest user of urban land-housing-in a dramatic fashion.

Indeed, housing is most in trouble. Segregation, slums, the movement out of slums into the suburbs, the travails of urban renewals, and the battles of suburb against suburb and suburb against city are the hot spots of the cities' problems. They are caused by all the diseases of the cities, yet they can be seen as the struggle for personal identity. Scott Greer suggests, for example, that the reluctance of suburban communities to affiliate with the central city, except on the most limited fashion, stems from their desire for local control.¹⁰ Residents of a suburban community cherish their localism and control of schools and other services which influence entry into the area in order to define themselves as a certain kind of person, and to pass on that identity to their children. Large bureaucracies operating, as they should, "*sine ira et studio*," when armed in addition with an egalitarian ideology would defeat such protectionist defenses of local interests.

These trends appear to varying degrees in the great city. But the metropolitan areas are diverse, varying in as many ways as can be imagined. With respect to population movement, for example, Leo Schnore has shown that in some cities the upper and the lower socioeconomic groups are left in the city while the middle class moves out to the suburbs; in other cities, the reverse is true; in still

others, there is an homogenization of the various social classes throughout all sectors of the metropolitan region. The monolithic image of the impoverished Negro inhabiting the central cities without skills and resources to run it while the middle class community leadership cadres trivialize their talents in local suburban games is thus an overstatement, and a falsification. It is the responsibility of the administrators in each metropolitan area to get the facts about their own city straight; national stereotypes are worse than useless. If these administrators are involved in the book business, either as librarians, educators, or some other kind of bookseller, they had better pay attention to the variation in the way a community allocates its book dollars. Communities differ considerably not only in the total percentage of income put into books, but also in the allocation of these dollars among the many ways books can be secured. To illustrate, I include a table showing the rank order of about forty cities in book resources, including public libraries, academic libraries, special libraries and bookstores. The data for these rankings have been carefully put together from a variety of previously published and newly gathered statistical sources.

There is an impressive amount of absolute variation among the cities in their different facilities. The provision of library books per capita, for instance, varies from 3.4 in Cleveland to 0.5 in Houston. In Gary-Hammond there are 48,300 people for every bookstore, but in San Francisco there is a bookstore for every 6,400 people.

TABLE 4
BOOK AVAILABILITY—RANK ORDER^a
(Lowest Number Means Higher Availability)

Cities in Order of Population	Public Libraries	Book Stores	Academic Libraries	Special Libraries	Consolidated Index
New York	27.5*	7.5	19.5	5	10
Chicago	39.5	13	28	6.5	21
Los Angeles . . .	31.5	20	10	21	17
Philadelphia . . .	33	16	15.5	4	12
Detroit	29.5	35	29	29	34
Baltimore	19.5	10	9	10	8
Houston	43	36.5	22	28	37
Cleveland	1	29.5	17.5	15	11
Minneapolis-					
St. Paul	9	15	3	6.5	5
Washington	21.5	3	6	1	4
St. Louis	4	21.5	5	10	13

TABLE 4—Continued

Cities in Order of Population	Public Libraries	Book Stores	Academic Libraries	Special Libraries	Consolidated Index
Milwaukee.	17	21.5	15.5	37	23
San Francisco . .	27.5	1	17.5	3	9
Boston	2	2	7	2	1
Pittsburgh.	3	9	1.5	12.5	2
Seattle	6.5	6	13	14	6
Buffalo	12	29.5	21	23.5	20
Memphis.	35	42	11.5	30	33
Atlanta	34	18	23.5	17	24
Indianapolis. . . .	15	32	31	16	25
Phoenix	37.5	36.5	35	35	43
Newark.	5	27.5	39.5	23.5	27
Fort Worth	25.5	24	8	21	15
Birmingham . . .	37.5	34	30	32.5	39
Akron.	31.5	25.5	26.5	32.5	32
Gary-Hammond .	18	43	39.5	41.5	41.5
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	21.5	39.5	39.5	41.5	41.5
Tampa	36	33	32	36	40
San Jose	14	11	11.5	38.5	14
Charlotte	24	14	26.5	38.5	29
Jacksonville . . .	9	19	33	21	16
Salt Lake City . .	12	5	4	8	3
Duluth-Superior .	12	39.5	39.5	19	31
Amarillo.	39.5	24.5	34	34	38
South Bend	15	27.5	19.5	26	22
Albany	19.5	4	14	10	7
Middletown-Hamilton. . . .	6.5	12	39.5	27	19
Waterbury.	15	38	39.5	31	35
Utica	23	31	39.5	12.5	30
Waco	42	41	1.5	18	28
Manchester.	9	23	22.5	40	26
Bakersfield	25.5	7.5	25	25	18
Tyler	29.5	17	39.5	43	36

^aEnnis, Philip H. Adult Book Reading in the United States. (National Opinion Research Center Report No. 105) Chicago, University of Chicago, National Opinion Research Center, 1965, pp. 68-69, Table 3.1.

*Most ranks are whole numbers, but in the case of ties between cities their ranks are averaged, yielding a fractional rank.

More significant than these variations, however, is the patterning of bookstores and the different kinds of libraries. By inspection alone it is not clear what their interrelations are, so the next table shows the rank order correlations.

TABLE 5
BOOK AVAILABILITY—RANK ORDER CORRELATION^a

Type of Outlet	Bookstore	Academic Libraries	Special Libraries
Public Libraries30	.16	.26
Bookstores50	.56
Academic libraries.53

^aEnnis, *op. cit.* p. 75, Table 3.3.

It is clear that the provision of public libraries is unrelated to the supply of bookstores, or, in fact, to the other kinds of libraries. Good special and academic libraries are more likely to go together, and with these types is found also a good supply of bookstores. Thus we have a complex mixture of "the more, the more" so typical of other mass media situations, as well as a relative independence. The only pattern we do not see here is the inverse correlation where one kind of book outlet would substitute for another. Yet this may indeed be the case, for there are several book channels not represented, e.g., the book club and the mass paperback outlet. There is tentative evidence that there is also considerable community variation in these sources of books.

The significance of these figures lies in the basic factual support they give to the central questions of how the community's book dollars are best allocated. This is the question of how many of those dollars are to be allocated to schools and school libraries, how many dollars to public libraries, and how many dollars are to be left in the individual citizen's pocket, to be spent on books of his own choosing. If, for example, the suburbs of a given city are satisfying their needs for books through the building of bookstores in shopping areas, as a recent *Time* magazine article suggests is happening, then library planners should think twice about attempting to extend their branch operations in a conventional manner to those suburbs. Resources might well be channeled elsewhere.

Since the allocation of book dollars is not a decision made by any group of people reaching a consensus, but rather the outcome of a mixed set of decisions, some made in the market place and some

made in the political give-and-take of dividing up the municipal revenues, no rational formula as to the optimal allocation can be given. Librarians, educators, and booksellers have to decide what to do and what to fight for on the basis of what is in fact happening in their communities and how it fits in with their objectives. They not only have to take into account the present patterning of book sources and their present use, but also they have to understand the characteristics of the population to be served, its mobility trends, and its likely educational gain, for there are still great differences in the use of print as a function of income and education. The table below, taken from a recent survey, shows dramatically how much difference these factors do make in book and magazine reading.

TABLE 6
EDUCATION AND INCOME DIFFERENCES IN
BOOK AND MAGAZINE READING^a
(NORC, Adult Education, 1962)
INCOME-EDUCATION INDEX*

1					2				
Read Magazines					Read Magazines				
Yes No					Yes No				
Read	Yes	74%	9%	83%	Read	Yes	51%	11%	62%
Books	No	17	0	17	Books	No	26	12	38
91% 9% 100% =					77% 23% 100% =				
(93)					(184)				
3					4				
Read Magazines					Read Magazines				
Yes No					Yes No				
Read	Yes	41%	14%	55%	Read	Yes	17%	13%	30%
Books	No	21	24	45	Books	No	17	53	70
62% 39% 100% =					34% 66% 100% =				
(209)					(126)				

*The Income-Education Index has been used to collapse this table to a more manageable form. Index numbers were assigned on the following scheme:

Education	College		High School		Elem. School	
Income (\$1,000's)	7+	7-	7+	7-	7+	7-
Income-Education Index	1	2	2	3	3	4

^aEnnis, *op. cit.*, p. 50, Table 2.16.

Clearly the policies involved in getting books to those who are readers should be different from the policies designed to reach the non-reader. Perhaps one of the most important failures of ordinary public library administration is thinking something is being done to reach the "potential" audience when in fact only the actual audience is being inundated with irrelevant messages. We will return to this question later.

There is a paradoxical situation reflected in the educational differences in reading in that there does not appear to be very much difference in the use of books between cities and suburbs. I draw on a study of consumer expenditures conducted by the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania a decade ago. In the tables below, income and occupational level are held constant, and the distribution of the family's leisure budget is shown for those in suburbs and in central cities.

TABLE 7a
LEISURE EXPENDITURES^a
(Families with Income Between \$3,000 and \$6,000, 1950)

	Radio, TV	Admis- sions	Other	Reading	Total	Number of Families
<u>Professionals, officials and self-employed</u>						
Large city. .	38%	19%	26%	17%	100%	(388)
Suburbs . . .	37	14	33	16	100	(162)
<u>Sales and clerical personnel</u>						
Large city. .	36	18	31	15	100	(299)
Suburbs . . .	39	17	28	16	100	(103)

TABLE 7a continued

	Radio, TV	Admis- sions	Other	Reading	Total	Number of Families
<u>Skilled workers</u>						
Large city. .	42	17	26	15	100	(484)
Suburbs . . .	45	15	24	16	100	(167)

^aEnnis, Philip H. "Leisure in the Suburbs: Research Prolegomenon." In William M. Dobriner, ed., The Suburban Community. New York, Putnam, 1958, p. 255, Table 2A. (Data from Wharton School of Finance and Commerce. Study of Consumer Expenditures, Incomes, and Savings. Vol. 9, 1956, pp. 150-151, Table 16.)

TABLE 7b
LEISURE EXPENDITURES^a
(Families with Incomes Over \$6,000, 1950)

	Radio, TV	Admis- sions	Other	Reading	Total	Number of Families
<u>Professionals, officials, and self-employed</u>						
Large city. .	29%	17%	40%	14%	100 %	(205)
Suburbs . . .	20	15	51	14	100	(139)
<u>Sales and clerical personnel</u>						
Large city. .	30	18	37	15	100	(54)
Suburbs . . .	28	16	43	13	100	(29)
<u>Skilled workers</u>						
Large city. .	39	21	30	10	100	(93)
Suburbs . . .	36	22	31	11	100	(38)

^aEnnis, op. cit., p. 256, Table 2B. (Wharton School, pp. 150-51, Table 16.)

The surprising thing here is that, aside from the expected income and occupational differences, there is hardly any difference in

the pattern of expenditures as a function of place of residence—including reading expenditures.

This point calls attention to another major trend in society that is of great significance, both in the metropolitan region's center and its suburban periphery. A great homogenization of cultural tastes is occurring. If, as noted above, there is a weakening of the correlations connecting background characteristics to attitudes and behavior, then there is a related trend of mixing and resorting of all kinds of cultural tastes that had previously been segregated. This is most true along the traditional brow line. There is solid and repeated evidence¹¹ that highbrows are participating in middle-and lowbrow culture, and in absolute terms, a surprisingly large number of lowbrow people (as predicted by educational level) are participating in middle-and high-brow activities. While it is probably an overstatement to say there is a full two-way street, it seems unmistakable that the participants of minority and so-called "refined" arts are also watching television and reading the popular magazines and trashy novels to the same extent as the rest of the population. An important implication of such cultural blurring is that more and more sectors of so-called high art are drawn into a market situation where the search for the hit book, the smash musical, or the latest word in painting or composition threatens to overwhelm the more normal, and slower processes of cultural interchange. Even worse is the rapid expansion of an audience for these forms, too rapidly to build the critical standards of judging the products on their own intrinsic terms. It is the maintenance of these critical standards on the part of an independent audience that constitutes the grid in the cultural ice cube tray. Remove it and there is an uncontrolled sloshing about, where fad and fashion run riot over the orderly transmission of a cultural heritage. The problem is who should teach these standards: the family, the school, the creators themselves, or, for those cultural forms lucky enough to have them, the critics? Concretely, how should the library, the schools, and the literary marketplace allocate the tasks of creating a new generation of readers and establishing their tastes?

This problem of task allocation brings us to a related trend in the metropolis, the analogous ceaseless shift of task allocation among occupations and of functions among the various civic service institutions. Part of this shift comes from the constantly changing size of units; some things are getting bigger, some smaller. Some services tend to get more local, others tend to assume a city-wide, even regional boundary.

What, for example, is the optimal size of a library or a school system? By and large there appears no good yardstick that can be applied to all cities. There appears, however, a consensus with respect to education. Consolidation into larger units has proceeded steadily; from 1950 to 1960 the number of school districts in the

country has declined from 84,000 to 40,000. Apparently there are genuine economies of scale in the larger unit. With respect to libraries, the same logic applies. The ALA has often estimated minimum sizes of libraries, beneath which it appears a waste of dollars to bother. Yet from 1931 to 1961 the number of separate library administrative units has increased by 25 per cent, and most of them are small. This is the price of suburban localism. It will take political planning by some virtuoso to turn this tide and find the right way of organizing the library resources into efficient units.

The most important of these structural changes is in the nature of the governmental structure in the metropolis. Banfield and Wilson, in their comprehensive evaluation of what is happening to city politics, summarize their finding as follows. There is a

. . . shift from a predominantly lower-class to a predominantly middle-class political style . . . the middle-class ideal sees local politics as a cooperative search for the concrete implications of a more or less objective public interest, an interest of the community "as a whole." . . . The logic of the middle-class ideal implies also certain institutional arrangements (nonpartisanship, at-large election, the council-manager form, master planning, and metropolitan area organization); particular regard for the public virtues of honesty, efficiency, and impartiality; and a disposition to encourage the consumption of "public goods" like schools, parks, museums, libraries, and, by extension, urban renewal. In general, the tendency is toward what Benjamin DeMott has called "an apolitical politics, partyless and problemless."¹¹ . . .

The old style politics of the boss and machine is, and no doubt will remain, highly congenial to the lower class. However, the nationally growing middle class has shown that it will use its control of state and federal governments—and particularly of law enforcement agencies and of special districts within the metropolitan areas—to withhold the patronage, protection and other political resources that are indispensable to the growth of political machines in the central cities. This means that the lower class will have to play politics of a kind that is tolerable to the middle class or not play it at all.¹²

The result of this shift in political structure has been the creation of a power structure comprised of a series of interlocking, but not fully harmonious or integrated elites. Businessmen, professionals, "social leaders," civic organizations, ethnic and labor associations, religious and racial groups, all these and others have special areas of leadership and dominance.

There are various collations of these forces at given times in particular places on specific issues, but as yet there is little known

about the general distribution of these patterns in the major cities, since community power studies have been done in only a few areas.*

Banfield and Wilson observe that as the middle class groups take charge, they will increasingly rely on national "experts," such as bodies like the International City Manager Association and the American Institute of Planning and Redevelopment Officials. Yet the advice of the national experts is not likely to be followed too closely because of the local pressures and general recalcitrance of the political process in a city. Thus, for example, all kinds of national experts have advocated some form of metropolitan government as a solution to the multiple and overlapping special district tangle. Yet Scott Greer¹⁰ has shown dramatically the difficulties in achieving this metropolitan kind of government. In fact, only Miami and Toronto have accomplished this effectively. In the other cities that have tried, metropolitan government was defeated for a variety of reasons, among them the organized opposition of those who had local autonomy to lose; that is, of course, the same process discussed earlier, a defense of identity, here defined in spatial terms.

The process of institutional change also applies to education and libraries, health facilities, and almost every other organized social effort to meet metropolitan needs. Institutions try to organize themselves to meet a certain array of needs for a given clientele distributed in a given spatial pattern. After a time, the people change and move, and their needs change so that at a later time the cluster of social attitudes and practices and real estate of the institution no longer fits the needs and the location of the people. Change is imperative if the institution is going to survive. Institutions can be bypassed; witness how the old Mechanics Institutes and the Chutuquas vanished when other educational and leisure forms arose which were more suitable.

Today, discussions of educational parks and community information centers from the side of organized (and federally supported) government threaten to outflank the traditional school and library concepts. There is a flanking movement from the other side as well. To many urban activists, especially those interested in the culturally disadvantaged, the school and the library are too massive, too unresponsive. Therefore a rash of experiments has appeared, attempting to create an institutional form that meets the educational and reading needs of the people who regard the school and the library as a middle class domain. It is too early to assess the success of these movements—the volunteer study center, the student tutoring projects,

*The Banfield and Wilson book mentioned above, which draws on studies of the political process in a large number of cities, is an important exception, one made possible by the MIT-Harvard Joint Center for Urban Studies.

the so-called freedom schools, the store front libraries, the semi-amateur adult retraining centers, etc.—but their presence and growth clearly indicate an important gap in the functioning of the school and the library.

There is no single or simple remedy, of course; just as the profession of librarianship is in the process of reintegrating itself with information retrieval and documentation, specialties that still threaten to fly off by themselves as separate subprofessions, so too will librarianship probably reach out to enfold or join the leading edge of the experiments seeking new ways to bring books to people. Let us hope that the embrace will not smother them.

The metropolis is a restless and an untidy place. The burden of institutional survival therefore is on the local leadership. If full rational behavior in establishing institutional objectives, assigning priorities to them, and assembling and assigning resources for their realization is not possible, as Braybrooke and Lindblom claim,¹³ neither, it seems to me, is their strategy, called “disjointed incrementalism.” This approach seems to boil down to doing very little at the edges that seem least dangerous. My own view is that library objectives are multiple and different. Some priority of objectives seems imperative, and then the task is to employ the strategy of specialization to the fullest; making a given branch library a miniature and inevitably weaker version of the main seems a waste of resources, and including a vast range of nonliterary materials in the library’s collections may undercut its main purposes. Concentration on a few tasks is more realistic than trying to do everything, especially when that “everything” is formulated in terms of a nineteenth century ideological stance of providing all kinds of books to all kinds of people. Each city, moreover, has to explore its own situation and come up with its own agenda.

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PROBLEMS OF PLANNING IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT

Matthew L. Rockwell

We have been asked to consider the problems of planning in the metropolitan environment. If we were to confine our remarks merely to those problems with which the planner must wrestle, then perhaps our task could be made simpler even though the list would be long. Obviously planners must consider—in varying degrees—the multitude of difficulties facing people who live in the metropolitan government. Merely to enumerate the areas of concern is not to provide the formula by which we hope to effect the solution. It is easy to point out the number one problem we face in planning for the metropolis. It is, simply, PEOPLE. (Or at least, that there are more and more of them).

The most important ingredient in any metropolitan environment is, of course, its people. This is why these areas came to be. And people are the reason we have problems to solve. To provide a better environment in which future generations will live and in which they will freely and fully develop their talents is the goal of all those working to improve society. If we review the important role of urbanized society over the centuries and look at the accomplishments of the people who have been affected by the environment of the metropolis, we see one aspect of our problem.

When we recognize that more and more of the world's population is gathered into urbanized clusters we see another facet of the task before us. With over two-thirds of the population of the United States in cities or in metropolitan areas, the importance of these regions is clearly visible. While there may be concern for the future in any area facing considerable population gains, there are perhaps louder groans in areas with a static or shrinking population. It isn't growing. Something is wrong. People are leaving.

We could reduce our area of discussion by concerning ourselves solely with the physical aspects of urban growth, and in this way produce a list which would include, among other things, such mundane puzzlers as what to do with increasing amounts of garbage, refuse and sewage—the by-products of urbanization. This narrower view of the problem would result from our considering the impact of more people on a metropolitan area strictly from the view point of the

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physical requirements—looking only to numbers, to quantity. What of the current and future population? How many? Where will they live? How many houses or apartments will be built? What of transportation requirements? Do we only consider how many bodies must be moved from this point to another, and by what conveyance? How many acres of land will be used for industrial plants, parks or other purposes? How many square feet of store space will be needed to satisfy the retailing requirements for a given number of people who have certain amounts of money to spend? How many billions of gallons of fresh water will the growing metropolis consume, not just to drink but to feed the industrial needs and to flush the wastes away? Where do we flush the wastes when downstream is rapidly disappearing? Everyone knows of these problems.

Public officials and individuals are aware of them too, but generally in isolation. They are aware of the difficulty causing them the most immediate concern. The planner must consider these as an interrelated package and measure the effect of one action on other problems. And it is here, as the saying goes, that things become sticky for the solution to one problem may create greater difficulties somewhere else. I touched, gingerly, or should I say with my hand to my nose, the problem that has developed because we have disposed of wastes in our streams and lakes. Pollution is a serious problem. We are ruining our water courses and destroying valuable recreational areas. We are polluting the water we drink and also the air we breathe—a couple of fairly important elements necessary in any environment and, which in their pure form, are becoming more difficult to obtain in the metropolitan areas.

But our purpose is not to list the problems planners must consider nor to take sides as to what area of man's social activity is the planner's proper domain. Let us address ourselves to the problem of planning rather than to the problems which planners face. Since planners are people, there can be differences of opinion within the profession as to which problems are paramount. They ask, are social or physical goals of greatest concern? To what extent are they intertwined? To what degree do decisions to change the physical makeup of an area influence man's social environment? How far can we tread in this area? Thus, you have some of the more apparent problems of planning, or of planners, if you wish. But at least the profession is, to paraphrase the song, perhaps a headache but never a bore.

This is not to imply any unhealthy condition in the profession because of differences planners may hold. Rather, I view this as evidence that the profession is dynamic, growing and comes to grips with some knotty problems. I do not mean to imply any differences which are severe and divisive, rather, that different men feel they can do the same job in different ways.

Two architects commissioned to draw plans for a particular building will undoubtedly submit structures which provide the same functions but are of different designs. I like to use this analogy when comparing the methods of different planning agencies. Since we often do not agree, though there is not as much disagreement as some of the detractors of planning would imply, it is not too surprising that others, outside the profession, hold varying opinions of what planning is, or should be.

Since, to put it crassly, we stick our noses into so many areas of human activity, it is not unusual that those professionals in these fields may resent our interference. Again and again, from many of these professionals, we hear complaints that we are trying to dictate and control the lives of men. But those involved in the planning profession bring to organizations skills from many related fields and academic backgrounds. As an example, the assistant director of the Northeastern Illinois Planning Commission is an economist. I was trained and practiced as an architect, in addition to being a planner. Some of those in our organization are lawyers, hydrologists, political scientists. We also have men trained as city managers.

If those trained in particular skills are critical of planning, then it can be expected that some public officials and private citizens, who have less knowledge of our activities, would also look upon the profession with a wary eye. There are many who are critical of planners because—so these critics say—the social consequences of decisions have not fully been considered. Others criticize because they feel planning is not being used to cure, or at least to attempt to cure, the social and economic ills of society. There are some who view planning as a sinister plan and an attempt to suborn the liberty of individuals. The picture is certainly not all negative and opponents are perhaps more vocal than numerous. We have our very vocal supporters, too. Obviously, with the increasing pressure for regional planning agencies, there is a need for the skills of our profession.

When we are asked to render an opinion of the relative merits of a pending decision which has an effect on several governmental units, what we say may displease certain parties. This is not taking sides, but it can be misunderstood to be. When there are certain fundamental planning principles involved, we outline our reasons—giving weight to each point in the controversy. We don't say a decision should or should not be made, but we want to give local officials the background so that they may render more intelligent decisions.

We have done this when asked to comment on the relative merits of alternative routes of a proposed super highway which will cut through an urbanized county. We were also requested to give an opinion relating to the sale of a parcel of park land in a local community for use as a library site. We recommended strongly against the use of the park site because we are firmly opposed to the sale or use of

any public park land for non-park use, particularly in an area where there is a shortage of such land. We drew upon the University of Illinois' library school publications to illustrate the reason for a better site location—better than merely the availability of land. The accessibility to the community was emphasized. The local library people took this quite well.

We act only in an advisory capacity. How well our suggestions are heeded will largely be determined by the faith placed in our ability by public officials and, more important, by the general public. Since we must consider the public interest it would be well for planners to place greater emphasis on communications with the people so that we better understand each other. My faith in the democratic process is unshaken and I believe that when he is fully informed and properly understands the situation, John Q. Citizen will make the correct decisions! We hope to give him guidance. That is our major role. Certainly the public's idea of the profession can be an important factor to be considered by planners.

Whether we be taken as miracle workers for good or for bad, it is still a mistaken idea—one which attributes to the planner a certain omnipotence which he does not possess. Maybe we have oversold our own product and maybe our willingness to tackle just about any sticky problem has led us into a position where "cure all" tags are placed upon us.

Those who would place blind trust in planning as a solution are forgetting that plans must be translated into action before there can be accomplishment. The architect's ideas will never come off the drawing board and take physical shape in the form of a building unless there is a construction program to follow the blue prints.

Any "plan," be it metropolitan, city or village, will never take on life and help transform the community unless there is action on the part of government and on the part of private citizens and agencies. For those who fear planning because they attribute to it an unwarranted role of interference into the private lives of a citizen, I would repeat—actions must be taken by elected officials before anything suggested by planners can be accomplished. There will always be dissenters to any proposals—some very strong—but no planner, and particularly no elected official, is going to espouse something on which the majority of the citizens of an area cannot agree. In both cases the profession is viewed with undeserved awe—for we have no cure-all for society's ills.

We admit striving to achieve a better community. Maybe we would all like to see a perfect community and, although we realize perfection is an ever-fleeting goal, we must strive to accomplish this feat. I am certain that your purpose in being here is to work toward that end. Like tomorrow, perfection never comes. Plans drawn yesterday with the aim of achieving certain goals by some future date will

be outmoded tomorrow—no, perhaps are outmoded today—as new facts are revealed. Since plans once drawn need updating and revision, this appears to make a work program for planners and draws barbs from the not-so-understanding critic. We have seen recently the introduction to the public of the new line of 1966 automobiles. Although the manufacturers of these vehicles had just finished a very good year and expect to sell nine million cars next year, their planners and designers are already setting their sights for the 1967 models.

Planning agencies exist on many levels. Private planning consultants provide advice to small communities and to many very large communities, with a degree of detail and thoroughness which regional planners cannot achieve. They could, but this would require far larger staffs and would be reaching into an area I feel should remain a local prerogative.

Most large cities have planning staffs. Also, they now have the tendency to merge these “planners” with the “doing” departments. Some states, such as Connecticut and New York, have statewide planning authorities, but their functions seem to coordinate the work of the regional level planners within those states. One of the best known planning groups is the New York Regional Plan Association—a nonprofit civic organization supported by business, governments and individuals—which concerns itself with the New York Metropolitan Region. This area covers seventeen counties of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut.

The Northeastern Illinois Planning Commission is one of two such organizations established by the state legislature. The other is the Southwestern Illinois Planning Commission which covers the three counties near East St. Louis. The Commission which I represent was set up in 1957 to direct the orderly growth of the six counties of Northeastern Illinois, an area which included Chicago. In 1965 there are approximately seven million people in this 3,700 square mile region, and half of these people live outside the city of Chicago. There are 250 municipalities among the over 1,200 units of government with some level of jurisdiction in the region.

Since I mentioned water problems earlier, I might note here that of these 1200 units, 676 governments have something to do with water. Many concerned citizens feel the number of governments must be reduced before more orderly development can take place. They place this requirement first. Our Commission is taken to task because we have not espoused this theory.

The problems facing the growing area (another two and one half million people are expected to be in the area by 1980), will have to be solved—regardless of the number of governments involved. Everything we propose we do within the present framework of existing governmental structures. Seeking to coordinate the efforts of the

many units of governments within the six-county region is one of our biggest problems. If local cooperation can be achieved and these governments can operate efficiently and solve the many problems thrust upon them, then we need not fear that a super government will be imposed on the present system. Again, it is our job as planners to establish rapport with the many leaders of small governmental units and with people, so that they thoroughly understand their problems and the choices they have for the future. Perhaps we planners are our own biggest problem. We must look first to ourselves before we ask others to understand us. Maybe another kind of selling program is in order—or rather, a program of information is in order.

Unless our resources (the skills of planners) are fully utilized, we may not truly know how successful we can or cannot be. The greatest collection of books that the brains of your organization could assemble is not a library until the information contained in those volumes is used by the people. The future generations of our urbanized area will not be able to develop to their greatest potential if the giant millstone of metropolitan problems is not removed. There can be no freedom for the individual to reach the zenith of his perfection if the ills now affecting the metropolis cannot be halted.

The test of planning is yet to come. We, too, must make certain our skills are used to their fullest now, to provide the best possible environment for the future generations who will live in the metropolitan areas.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT

Ralph Blasingame

If it was not clear before that the term "metropolitan area" is a very broad one, encompassing circumstances both complex and widely differing, it certainly is now. The forces, problems and opportunities in any large center of population present an overwhelming maze of interactions; of matters which seem simple only to those who wish them to be. Close and objective examination of the results of the massing of people in relatively small geographic areas seem only to lead us from one tentative conclusion about a problem to another factor, whose roots are bound up with still others. Furthermore, it is also clear that the examination of one urban area does not necessarily yield useful information about others. Even if a certain problem about which we have some facts in one metropolitan area actually exists in another area, there is some chance that it has not yet been perceived and set forth as an important problem.

To make matters worse, superficially, many metropolitan areas bear similarities to others and thus conceal their real outlines, making agreement as to the relative shape and importance of unusual characteristics difficult to achieve. It is possible to make the case that many, perhaps all, metropolitan areas are very much alike. Each must have certain basic industries, communications media, food and service facilities and so forth. These similarities, however, do not make the central matters for consideration for the public librarian in San Angelo, Texas, (a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area) the same as those for the New York Metropolitan area, and nothing else can, either.

There are also different ways to define what is a metropolitan area. The U. S. Census Bureau definition of Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area has meaning in locating population centers, but it means nothing in terms which influence library development. Were one to raise his sights as to what constitutes a metropolitan area, it is possible that generalization might become simpler and more meaningful. However, there is apparently little relationship between size of metropolitan area, even the largest ones, and stage of public library development, or, at least, no very certain relationship. Boston's Public Library was established over 100 years ago and has been

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relatively well supported for long periods of time. Philadelphia's Free Library was established less than fifty years ago and was poorly supported until rather recently. There seems to be little reason solely associated with metropolitan context, to group the two-headed New York Public Library with its strong orientation toward the scholar with the Enoch Pratt Free Library with its unified organization and equally strong orientation toward studious Everyman.

Looking outside the cities, the picture is equally fuzzy. It is probably generally true that the suburbs, or at least the rather wealthy ones which have grown rapidly recently, are showing great interest in public libraries. However, again, the contrasts are great and there is no obvious consistent pattern.

I have spent these minutes belaboring this matter for one primary reason: to make it clear that, in my opinion, the tendency to talk about metropolitan area libraries often leads to missing the main point; metropolitan area characteristics are those of people, not those of libraries. To see the areas of concern and the opportunities for the public library in the metropolitan area requires that one look outside the library first and try to discern the people-problems clearly. A good part of this institute, as I read the program, is given over to looking outside the library. Hopefully, your discussion will concentrate on those parts of the program at least as much as on library topics. This looking outside should be, of course, a continuous process.

There are reasons for examining public libraries in metropolitan areas, of course, even if our observations about them may be misleading at times.

Let me define "urbanization" for the moment as the swelling of population in the cities at the expense of the rural areas. This process is of rather recent origin. If you will agree that it is not much more than 100 years old, in terms of serious social effect, then some possible relationship of the development and growth of the public library to urbanization may be observed. It appears to me that several factors must be present before a public library can be successful by generally accepted standards today. There must be an economy able to support a variety of educational and cultural institutions and a concentration of people sufficient to provide those institutions with suitable audiences over a period of time. The growth of the city has always been both a result and cause of the concentration of the means of production and producing things in a competitive atmosphere demands skill and technical innovation. Therefore, the means of gaining skill and knowledge receive support. There must also be other factors, not the least of which is leadership of some undefined nature. The process of urbanization as just set forth has always brought the first four factors into being, but not always leadership for the public library. Viewed in this fashion, the city public library appears to be

a prototype which most other public libraries have imitated. Thus, it has been and continues to be a very strong influence on public library development in general.

Some of the outstanding characteristics of most city public libraries from the beginning have been (1) organizational support by a single unit of government, (2) the voluntary (rather than mandatory) nature of that support, (3) development as "systems" with multiple outlets and (4) lack of dependence upon the state except for permissive enabling legislation. Because of the vigor with which these characteristics have been presented to the profession, several of them have been used as models for libraries in areas which have not had the conditions prerequisite to the creation and support of libraries of a quality we now feel is acceptable. To be sure, a few multi-unit libraries have been created and the most significant state legislation of the past 10 or 15 years has furnished some new and workable characteristics of library systems. None of these influences, however, has as yet been especially wide-spread.

If urbanization is defined as the movement of people to the city at the expense of the rural areas, then it is probably drawing to a close. That is not to say that urbanization is not an important force, but that its influences are changing. Now, the development of the metropolitan area is the outstanding characteristic of population growth. For many reasons, the number of people living in cities is declining either in absolute numbers, or as percentages of the population of the metropolitan areas. With this decline, and the spread of industry outside cities, the cities face enormous problems which must sooner or later be reflected in most of the social service (including educational) agencies in the city. The same population shifts are creating equally disturbing, though different, problems for the other parts of the metropolitan areas.

The general pattern in the metropolitan area public library picture today is that of the older central city library, often, though not always, the most advanced in terms of ability to provide service and suburban libraries of widely varying degrees of development. By and large, furthermore, the latter are imitations organizationally and financially of the central city library (with a few notable exceptions); they are not participating in systems either among themselves or in association with the city library or with the state government. There are a few indications that the picture will be changed, but they are limited in number and, so far, in influence.

The central city public library is caught in many cross currents. For one, the people who traditionally have used it and toward whom collections and services are commonly oriented were, according to the doctrine of the Public Library Inquiry, supposed to be community decision makers. They either were not decision makers in terms of influencing the people who allocate funds or else they were not very

aggressive about enforcing their ideas. In short, the percentage of the city budget assigned to the public library has been slowly declining. This is perhaps not significant (percentages often are misleading), but it is a rather obvious indication which should have been followed up. To make matters more uncertain, these middle-class people among whom the "communications elite" are to be found, have been rapidly moving to the suburbs. There, they are sometimes a strong force, or appear to have been, for the development of library services, but their numbers have been so scattered that it has not been possible for them as yet to make their influence felt in many areas. The nature of suburbs is such that the same relative concentrations of persons as exists in the cities is not likely. Meanwhile, educational, economic and social trends make the consequences of not having information more and more severe and so the burden falls on the city libraries. There is some evidence, furthermore, that public libraries in one metropolitan area have been growing less rapidly than the population:

The enormous rate of population growth in the metropolitan region outstripped the efforts of librarians and city officials to provide improved library service. Despite localized efforts to keep up with the increasing population and with library use, which rose even faster than the population growth, the gains were illusory when the total region is considered.¹

At this stage it may be well to acknowledge the paucity of information about public libraries in metropolitan areas and about the forces which may affect them. Looking at the library world, one could comment on the great amount of information librarians gather and publish about themselves and, at the same time, on the many matters about which we have not gathered information which can be counted as objective. Looking outside the library world, there are some matters on which we have precise or "hard" data, some on which we have imprecise or "soft" data, and some on which we have some hard data, but with soft spots. The effect of the lack of information is to make all generalizations subject to dispute. Even were we to launch a massive program of research into metropolitan libraries it would be quite a long time before meaningful amounts of data could be accumulated. Thus, if we are to analyze certain questions, we must be willing to use soft data occasionally and to understand its limitations.

It may be useful to discuss briefly some of the forces in existence which will affect public libraries, especially in the metropolitan areas, in the coming years.

Certain of these forces have some effect on all public libraries in the metropolitan area, some have effect mainly on central city libraries, and others have primary effect upon libraries in outlying

areas. Of course, it is often artificial to separate public libraries from other types of libraries, but I shall not try in this short talk to spell out the interrelationships. It would be impossible to enumerate and study all forces which may influence us, so I have chosen to take a few aspects of the major topics, some already presented in this Institute, as illustrations.

Population changes:

We will experience continuing population growth and dispersal such that a temporary decline in population density may occur in some areas. At the same time, economic changes will cause dislocation of major proportion in some regions. Thus, the pressures to be expected from a growing population in a period of rising educational levels will be made difficult to deal with by the dispersal of library users through migration from the cities of both industries and persons and by stress on parts of the economy.

Unevenness of library development in any region is, consequently, inescapable. It can only be alleviated through vigorous leadership and long-range plans of types acceptable to all or most parts of the region. Since population growth does not observe state boundaries, pressures for interstate planning will increase. But do remember that there is no inevitable relationship between population growth and public library development.

Growth of the population and of the economy will result in a constant widening of the gap between the middle-class and the people at the lower end of the economic scale. Only if such efforts as the War on Poverty are very successful will the widening be checked. The public library generally, not just in the cities, does not have effective contact with poor people and with Negroes. The fact that the spectrum of economic and educational characteristics of the people who live in poor neighborhoods is not greatly different from that in not so poor neighborhoods (though the distribution of persons within the spectrum is different) serves to conceal the lack of effective contact. Other factors, such as our treatment of data about library use city-wide, state-wide and nation-wide, rather than by population characteristic also has helped to make this matter hard to bring into focus.

The opportunities presented to the public library are those inherent in a strong economy and a growing population. We have the chance to develop services at many different levels, the chance to have a most beneficial effect upon communities of widely varying types. The limitations are those which arise from the voluntary nature of support, the dispersal of persons on whom libraries have depended for support and the growing severity of the problems with which local governments (the public library's mainstay) must deal as the population grows and moves about.

Government:

As noted earlier, the public library is now, with few exceptions, the responsibility of local government. It has been popular among planners and people engaged in other types of reform to imagine that government can be rationalized—that is, that the means to our ends can be decided upon through consulting the experts. The obvious move, if this rationalization were to become a possibility, would be to by-pass or amalgamate local governments. A few examples of amalgamation can be cited, but there has been no sustained series of moves in this direction.

It is entirely likely that attitudes toward local government such as to their proper function, the leadership expected, the ability of each citizen to exercise influence, the place of expert solutions and many others will make consolidation of local governments for general purposes impossible. Several of the state library laws passed within the past decade have sidestepped these problems. In these plans, the acceptable characteristics of library systems have been determined and broad agreement reached on programs of cooperative action. It is important to note that the paths to agreement have been smoothed by state financial aid. Hopefully, analyses of these plans will help other states move toward similar programs.

Changing attitudes of librarians and trustees toward the proper organizational form of the public library are under the control of the library profession. Changing public attitudes about the role of local government generally are not subject to our control. The impediments to more or less even development of public libraries in metropolitan areas will be most effectively and quickly removed by modifying our own attitudes rather than through insisting upon the logic of amalgamation of units.

The creation of special purpose districts as units of local government has been popular in some areas. The results have often been good, but not always. The New York Port Authority is one extreme example of the creation of a quasi-governmental unit with certain of the characteristics of a monarchy. At the other end of the scale, a home owner in California can find himself drawn into five or six special districts, each with its own very specific purpose and taxing power. At neither end of the scale has local government really been simplified or replaced.

Local governments have supported public libraries of very uneven quality. If the role of government in our society is to increase (and many predictions support this idea), then there surely will be increasing pressures to involve those levels of government which are able to support more or less equal levels of service. The acceptability of state action in public library support and the degree to which the federal government may support libraries generally will probably increase. The cities have often appealed directly to the federal

government for aid. The creation of an urban affairs department in Washington would encourage request for aid for city libraries on such a basis. It might also stimulate inter-state planning where metropolitan areas cover parts of several states. However, experience at this time suggests that the state government has a largely untapped potential for large scale planning and significant financial aid for all public libraries, including those in metropolitan areas.

State plans for library development now generally presume that the same type of service must be provided for all areas. Undoubtedly, this feature is an expression of the states' traditional place in equalization of opportunity. Special problems of local financial ability and large percentages of poorly educated persons within and without metropolitan areas may lead to the provision of different types or levels of service for differing areas.

Technological Change:

Donald Michael believes that, "This society has chosen to emphasize technological change as its chief mode of creative expression and basis for economic growth."²

With the advent of automation and cybernation, the rate of technological change increased radically. The effects of this increase are wide spread and will touch more and more people. They will present many serious challenges to educational, cultural and recreational agencies. The consumption of highly skilled manpower will increase. Governmental interest in certain fields will cause them to increase in importance while others decrease. The consequence for public libraries will be to cope with the demands made by persons involved in education or training programs as students either registered for formal courses (perhaps federally inspired) or as individuals seeking to upgrade or retrain themselves. In either case, enforcement of library support for such programs will be difficult and will have to be provided as a general matter rather than an allocation of funds from a single responsible local institution. These demands may well put greatest pressure on central city libraries. However, training and retraining will increasingly be required of highly skilled persons many of whom now reside and are employed in outlying parts of the metropolitan area. As certain industries move away from the city, these pressures will come to bear on public libraries which have no tradition of special services or collections.

Educational changes:

Educational changes which affect libraries and which are made in an era of rapid population growth will repeatedly outrun our ability to deal with them unless they are coordinated with libraries well in advance. We can expect, for example, that the compression of the curriculum will continue. It is entirely possible that elementary school

students may put similar pressures for specialized information on public libraries to those which high school students do now. High school curricula will, meanwhile, advance with predictable pressures on public libraries.

The small, private colleges may find a means of meeting the library needs of their students, but the likelihood is that their students (especially those living in metropolitan areas) will put even greater pressure on public libraries. Meanwhile, at another level, special educational programs for the poorly educated given by institutions or commercial organizations on behalf of the federal government will probably increase. Both in terms of supporting those courses and to provide materials for the future use of such students, the public library will have to buy and put to use a new kind of printed materials; that is, having serious content but making relatively low demands on reading skill.

Many ideas have been superficially presented here. Many others have been left out. Nothing truly new has been said. Rather, an effort has been made to suggest the great array of problems and opportunities facing public libraries in metropolitan areas. There is another great area of consideration yet untouched; what need we do to solve the problems; to take advantage of the opportunities? Again, no single presentation can touch on all the possible courses. However, a few possibilities will be presented for your discussion.

Library Education:

Broadening of the base of education for the librarian seems desirable. Acquaintance with social problems in the broadest sense, and true reaction of the library school to the university atmosphere are suggested. Concurrently, a strong move toward the most efficient use of persons so trained will be required if all possible progress is to be made.

Government:

One of the bright spots in the picture of metropolitan area public libraries is the advent of state legislation of experimental character in a very few states. The number of states taking action is increasing. Several new organizational models for the library system have been developed and implemented in those states. Evaluation is or soon will be under way in two states (New York and Pennsylvania) having different, though similar, models.

Experimentation:

The struggle to stay abreast of the rising workload in most public libraries together with a lack of traditional regard for conscious experimentation has frozen many libraries into set patterns of organization and management. The establishment of one or more

centers for experimentation and the development of experimental projects instead of the common "demonstration" financed by LSCA funds would be highly desirable. As is the case with many other social institutions, the public library operates on assumptions which, for the most part, have not been tested. Thus, we lack the ability to refine (or replace) these assumptions.

Evaluation:

Experimentation is, of course, only the first part of the process of change. Evaluation of the results of both existing and experimental programs of service should be expanded. At present, the facilities and personnel which could be directed toward either experimentation or evaluation are severely limited. For that reason, and to insure that library programs be judged in the light of current thought in the social sciences, it may be well to encourage evaluation by individuals who have no personal stake in librarianship.

Evaluation should be a continuous process. When it is not, the results often take us by surprise and become the subject of essentially emotional reactions. If we can develop the means for long-term evaluation, perhaps this surprise effect can be tempered.

Research:

Research, like the weather, is a subject everyone talks about but few do anything about. Furthermore, the word "research" has been so abused that its meaning is often not known with any precision. The proposed federal Higher Education Act contains a title aimed at encouraging training and research in librarianship as you know. This is a hopeful sign, but it should not be regarded as the solution—it is only a means to a solution in a field not attuned to research.

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THE EDUCATION CRISIS IN THE NATION'S LARGE CITIES

Carl F. Hansen

More than 25 percent of the nation's children are educated in the school systems of 52 cities of 300,000 or greater population. An analysis of the special educational problems in the large cities is the purpose of this paper.

Inadequacy of Fiscal Support.

In these cities, the increasing number of children to be educated is met by a steadily diminishing flow of local tax money.

Unlike its suburban counterpart, the city tax dollar is heavily allocated to services supporting human beings in trouble. Health, welfare, and protection services, particularly police, take great slices of the tax dollar pie, reducing still further the amount of money available to build and staff schools, to supply the basic teaching tools, such as books, visual and auditory learning aids, equipment, and to set up the ancillary services desperately needed when children come from deprived homes.

The lack of space for school programs, for instance, puts many children on part-time schedules. From 1948 in the nation's capital nearly 40,000 children attended schools on half-day schedules and during the same period thousands of children were turned away from public school kindergartens for the lack of room. Moreover, every available square foot of space is used for class purposes: auditoriums, libraries, even store rooms and shabby basement rooms.

The new programs now to be available under Federal financing are not going to help much unless school construction is accelerated. Library books, for example, bought with Title II money under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act will not be used well when there is no school library to put them in.

Another result of lack of money in big-city schools is poor building maintenance. City school buildings are too often dismal and dingy, even rat-infested, supplying a depressing environment for children who most need bright and appealing surroundings, and for teachers whose work even under the best of physical conditions is frustrating and disappointing because of the children's learning difficulties.

In our city school system, the shortage of school space requires us to make use of school buildings beyond the traditional school hours.

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Many special projects are scheduled at times when the schools are not in use for regular classes.

1. After school tutorial programs extend the school day for pupils and, in at least three schools, for adults in the community who want to take special courses.

Last spring in one elementary school nearly four hundred parents voluntarily attended a series of lessons in the new math, science, civics, and reading to enhance their own learning and not merely as an interpretation of their children's work in the classroom.

2. Twilight schools for boys who have been suspended for disciplinary reasons operate from 3:30 p.m. to 7:30 p.m. in two elementary schools and two junior high schools. These schools maintain better attendance records than the schools from which the boys were dismissed.

3. A school called STAY has been organized for dropouts in a regular senior high school building that is overcrowded during the day. Now in its second semester of operation, the more than seven hundred students currently enrolled attend school from 3:30 p.m. to 8:30 p.m. The school has its own staff and is entirely independent of the day school operation.

4. Saturday schools are conducted for mothers and their pre-school age children in a number of elementary centers. These are exceptionally successful and will be stepped-up with the advent of new funds.

5. Plans are developed for a Mobile Reading Unit to be housed in a van-like vehicle. In addition to delivering technical service to the schoolhouse door, diagnostic and treatment programs can be supplied without using overcrowded school areas. An expansion of mobile service is under consideration, particularly in health improvement, psychological and psychiatric diagnosis and treatment, speech correction, and library services.

Lack of money impedes school staffing, including not only teachers but personnel in counseling, social work, and library operations. In an ironic twist of fate, the need for these services is the greatest where cultural handicapping is the most extensive and the tax dollar is the most anemic. But progress can be reported for the Washington schools, as I am sure it can be in all major city school systems. The climate for improvement is much better today than it was a few short years ago.

Two anecdotes illustrate how difficult it is to break through budget roadblocks.

For more than thirty years, the Washington, D. C. junior high school buildings included libraries, but the budget provided nothing for professional staff to man them. Repeatedly, the Board of Education had requested funds to hire junior high school librarians, and just as often the requests had been deleted by the budget office even

before reaching Congress which, as our fiscal agency, appropriates money collected from the city's taxpayers for the purpose of sustaining the municipal government.

In due course I finally persuaded the District Government budget director to consent to a plan for funding the cost of librarians from an unexpended balance in the school system's account. The concurrence of the District Commissioners and the chairman of the House Subcommittee on Appropriations for the District of Columbia, who is approached through the Clerk of the Committee, was required. Step by step, interview by interview, report after report—because I had to prove that school librarians were necessary to a good junior high school program—led finally to a memorable Saturday morning when I heard the Clerk call his committee chairman long distance at his home in Michigan to recommend that permission be granted the School Board to hire half the number of requested librarians on temporary funds from savings. The purpose was to find out if the library program was worth funding on a permanent basis. The committee chairman said "yes," and thus began an expansion of the school library staff which, though still incomplete, has jumped from 19 in 1960, to 105 in 1965.

In the Sisyphean exercise which after thirty years got the stone over the top of a very small hill, the most punishing aspect of the experience was the repeated demand for proof that schools need librarians. What usually one would take for granted as to the importance of library services in schools had to be debated, supported with objective data, and in other ways repeatedly justified.

In a somewhat similar move to improve school services, the Board of Education programmed elementary school counseling positions in its budget estimates, which as you know must be approved by the District budget office on its way to legislative action.

On one occasion, I spent a most agonizing conference with District budget officials explaining the importance of counselors in the elementary schools. A young lady member of the budget staff declared that she considered elementary school counselors unnecessary and, therefore, opposed the program. Somewhat ungallantly, I asked how she could interpose her non-professional judgment against that of the school staff. "I read a pamphlet on the subject," she declared. And because the lady could read, progress in counselor staffing was for a long period impossible. Now, however, I am glad to report that the number of counselors at all levels has increased nearly six times in recent years.

All too few citizens understand that funding school operations in city schools is a complex and intricate operation. Whatever advances are made must be accomplished against a natural inertia and a penny-wise pound-foolish attitude toward spending.

But money for better school services is not the complete answer to the question: How can you improve the education of city-school children? I want now to examine the special problems of big-city education. To do this I will analyze what I will call here the educability factor.

The Educability Factor Among Big-city School Children.

The kind of response children make to instruction depends as much upon what they bring to the classroom as upon what they encounter there. Even the most rapid review of factors that condition children's behavior shows that traditional school methods will not suffice in the nation's big cities.

1. Mobility. In a nation that is literally on the move, mobility particularly affects city populations. In the Washington schools, the great influx of new pupils, mostly Negroes, is almost matched by the exodus of white pupils.

The movement of people into and out of the city has a counterpart in the extensive mobility of families within the city. To illustrate, a special experimental project in a number of downtown elementary schools at the outset involved 660 pupils. In a very short time only 220 of the original 660 pupils remained in the original schools. More than 400 had transferred to other schools in the city.

2. Poverty. Nearly one-fourth of Washington's public school children come from families with poverty-level incomes. Many others live on the edge of deprivation, that is, are inadequately cared for in housing, health, food and clothing, and are deprived of the cultural amenities such as books, art, theater, music, and travel.

I know of children who, although ill, have come to school because of the free noon-time lunch; of boys who come to an elementary school in our city at 7:30 in the morning for a program of physical education followed by a shower and a breakfast.

I know of many teachers and principals in our school system who feed and clothe destitute children; who are providing breakfasts for children; who on occasion have gotten furniture for desperate families, where in one instance five children were sleeping in one bed. A school principal only recently literally probed the lonely city streets to find a lost child who had been pushed out of his home by a mother who was overwhelmed by adverse circumstances. Each year thousands of boys and girls come into our classrooms clean and loved, and happy in the early grades, only later to be victimized by oppressive conditions in their own homes, and who join the ranks of drop-outs, of delinquents, of the sad, inarticulate boys and girls of the streets.

Let me talk about other things which reflect at least in part the poverty of home and school services. Think if you will of the boys who form extortion rings to take nickels and dimes from children,

and who later commit crimes of violence with deadly weapons. Think if you will of the fact that many girls become pregnant out of wedlock, mainly because of poverty and improvidence and of the failure of the home and the school to remedy these deficiencies.

I talk as a man who knows of a fourth-grade girl who engaged in sexual activities with a perverted man, from which she was able to bring home small amounts of money to alcoholic parents.

I speak as a schoolman whose conscience cannot be rid of the story of a fifteen-year-old junior high school girl who disappeared into the quicksands of disordered living even though a school social worker made an effort to discover the cause of the girl's dissatisfaction with school. Much too late was the discovery that the girl was living in a home where the mother at the time of the visit of the social worker was in jail for the illicit sale of whiskey and where two older sisters were each the mother of four illegitimate children.

Nor can I put out of my mind the thirty-year-old mother of three illegitimate children, the oldest of whom, a boy, was in deep trouble in school. The young mother told me that she had left school at the age of fifteen because of pregnancy. Her home was disordered and unclean, and at the time I visited it, a two-year-old girl attired only in a short cotton shirt was standing on a chair at the table eating pork and beans from a can.

Whenever I recount problems that many of our children have when they come to school, my love and respect for them increases because so many do well, and are earnest, and are responsive, and my respect for the teachers increases because of their unremitting efforts to teach children who are in some cases almost unteachable.

No one can be satisfied with school services that fail to reduce educational retardation among many pupils who do not learn because of hunger, sickness, and mental disorders caused by poverty and neglect; who do not learn because of overcrowded classrooms, or the absence of counseling, or the poverty in books, or the neglect of library services or the failure to meet the simplest physical needs of the child through an adequate school lunch service; who do not learn because classrooms are in some cases staffed by poorly prepared teachers or where even the best teachers are mediocre because of the inadequacy of space and materials and special services.

3. Unemployment. Joblessness runs highest among youth 16-21 years of age, with Negro unemployment being more than twice that of white youth unemployment. In the city, poverty is further stimulated by the matriarchal structure that characterizes many Negro families, a generally uncontrolled birthrate among low-income groups, and a high rate of illegitimacy and venereal disease.

4. Family income and school achievement. The relationship between income and school achievement is very high.

A study made for us shows a high correlation between income and school achievement. Dr. John T. Daily, Education Research Director at George Washington University, found that when he related our elementary achievement test scores with median income by schools, income level correlated closely with achievement level.

But test scores for schools varied widely within the same income bracket. For example, schools serving census tracts where the median income was below \$3,000 showed a twenty-point difference in percent of retardation. This means that one school produced 20 percent higher achievement than another school in the same low income bracket.

In the \$3,000 to \$4,000 median income bracket, the differences in the percent of achievement scores below the national median run as high as 27 percent. It is interesting to observe also that at least two schools in the \$6,000 to \$7,000 bracket produced achievement scores that averaged below those in some of the schools in the \$2,000 to \$3,000 income levels.

Clearly, school performance, while likely to be low in low income areas, is affected by other conditions. Why one school can do so much better than another under the same economic condition needs an explanation. Moreover, the effective practices of the higher-achieving schools in the same or even lower income categories should serve as guidelines for less successful schools. With it all, we must avoid the mistake of apathy, we must reject the attitude that nothing much can be done in low income brackets, and we must find ways to improve what is currently being achieved.

5. Aspiration threshold. Many city children must work against family tradition if they seek to obtain as much as a high school education. In Washington, D. C., 80 percent of the pupils live in census tracts where the median years of schooling were less than 12. More than 32 percent of the adults have completed no more than 8 years of schooling. How to elevate the aspirations of pupils beyond the threshold of family accomplishment is a problem of motivation of serious concern.

6. De facto segregation. In the District of Columbia schools, Negroes comprise close to 90 percent of the school enrollment.

A few elementary schools are all white, a few all Negro in enrollment. Quite unexpectedly, most schools have small percentages of white or Negro pupils.

Big-city schools are expected to find miracle ways to establish racial balance. Schemes proposed and in some cases tested out in various cities include bussing, gerrymandering of boundaries, and pairing. None of the schemes thus far devised for school management has proved workable because de facto segregation results from social and economic conditions outside the control of the schools. The one plausible solution to the isolationism of de facto segregation whether

by race or income class is the creation of excellence in neighborhood schools.

After an admittedly incomplete analysis of urban conditions in relation to education, consideration of the school's changing responsibilities and structure is in order.

Change and Stability in City Education.

The caption for this section is deliberately contradictory, because I take the position that school responsibilities are fundamentally the same as in the past but their scope and conditions for achievement are vastly more complex.

The schools have primary responsibility for teaching the basic skills, for in the broad sense if these are not taught in school they are not taught anywhere. In the changing scope of educational responsibility, I am absolutist enough to believe that certain duties have remained constant throughout the history of education, and I predict that they will continue to be regarded as fundamental.

The change occurs in the fact that today education is universal, not selective as it was a half century ago. As a result, society now approaches the view that organized education must find out how to teach everyone no matter what his learning difficulties are. Education, it is argued, is central to the elimination of crime, juvenile delinquency, and poverty.

I am sure this is true. But it must never be forgotten that the most important education in the child's life takes place outside the school classroom—in the home particularly, in the days from birth on, even during the prenatal period—most of it before he comes to school.

In a recent Congressional hearing I was asked why so many pupils gave disinterest in school as a reason for leaving school. By inference, the schools were to blame for the drop-out problem. I pointed out to the committee that in the same classroom with the same teacher and curriculum and seated side-by-side, one pupil may be highly successful and another may be wholly unsuccessful. "Is it the teacher, then, who is at fault?" I asked. The differential is the factor of educability, that is, the personality condition which governs the individual's response to instruction. To blame the teacher for non-educability factors that may be traced to the pupil's cradle days is like blaming a doctor whose patient has contracted muscular dystrophy. But at the same time the schools must take the lead in improving pupil educability.

In my school district more than one hundred special projects, innovative and experimental in design, are now in process. I am sure that every school district can report many such projects. We have so much going on in the District of Columbia schools that we are in a greater-than-ordinary state of confusion. We need a breathing spell

for consolidation and reassessment, though we must be aware of the fact that the school system is only at the early stages of a greatly expanding social and educational role. In fact, the next phase of the educational revolution is at hand with more than six millions to be available to the Washington schools under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

A brief look at the plans for the use of money under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act will give insight into ways in which public education will be developing in the next few years.

Subject to Office of Education approval, the more than five million dollars available to us under this Act will be spent on no more than 30,000 pupils in not more than, and possibly less than, fifty percent of our schools. Roughly, this is an additional outlay of \$160 per pupil for the 30,000 selected to receive the benefits.

The pupils to be selected for extra attention are to be identified as drop-out prone. The factors which predict the destiny of such pupils will be carefully chosen by the Department of Pupil Personnel Services and will be applied beginning at the kindergarten level and extending through the secondary schools.

After prognostic identification, the new or additional services for these pupils will be indicated by the conditions which have led to their selection in the first place. These services may range from attention to the need for glasses to correct a vision impairment to supplying a totally new environment in a neighborhood home.

The special programs will include possibly the serving of complete breakfasts, the supplying of health services, tutorial instruction in reading, psychological and psychiatric services, both diagnostic and treatment, enrichment activities including visits to college campuses, to sports competitions, to business and industry, to other cities, all experiences of the kind that might be called "Operation Eye Opener." Most essential is parental involvement through counseling services, Saturday sessions, and summer programs. A special service program is to be so set up that someone in each school will have primary responsibility for every pupil identified as a potential drop-out, not on a 9 to 3 schedule for 180 days but on a 24 hour schedule for 365 days, a relationship comparable to that of a physician to his patient. Most important to all this will be an empirical approach to curriculum content and instructional methodology that will elicit a learning response from the pupils selected.

We need to face this experimental extension of school functions with well-defined reservations.

1. It is doubtful that all the needed special services can be bought for the amount of money to be made available.

2. The neglect of the more promising student in the new education act will eventually stimulate strong political criticism of the program.

3. The expectation that miracles will be performed may be far too high and thus eventually result in a reversal of Congressional interest in funding education.

4. School authorities, from the Board of Education down, are already being told that they now had better get results with the new programs—or turn the work over to other agencies.

5. Local schools must be on guard to protect their independence against the imposition of controls by over-zealous Federal officials, including Congressmen.

Today's popular political position is to hold the public schools responsible for everything that goes wrong in society. The relatively small amount of extra money coming to the schools will increase public clamor for a total cure of all the ills of society. We must be prepared to accept much vacuous criticism for the social problems that originate in the failures of home, church, and community.

We have long ago accepted the challenge of redeeming the least promising of our children. Deliberately, with full realization that the school cannot fully conquer hunger, unemployment, anger, hostility, self-indulgence, irresponsibility, emotional and physical disability, education must make a concentrated attack upon these demons of our time.

Our mission is so simple we should never lose sight of it. Our mission is that every pupil shall be given such loving attention, such careful and kindly teaching, that he will leave school proud to be himself. He will be set by his teachers on his way to divine self-fulfillment. It is to this end that public education must dedicate itself to the service of all the children.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY IN THE CHANGING METROPOLITAN SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Sara Innis Fenwick

Change has become a constant, and the acceptance of this factor in all areas of our living has had the effect of continually challenging the assumptions that guide our personal and public relationships, and our productivity. That there are some important challenges to the assumptions on which school library service operates is the basis of my discussion today.

The setting is the school—the school which Dr. Hansen has discussed.

When School Libraries Today and Tomorrow was formulated in 1945 to provide standards for the development of post-war school library service, the first objective outlined for the school library was to serve the school in the accomplishment of its educational purposes. That objective continues to be the focus of planning for library service in the school, and is reflected in the judicious planning of this program. The definitions of the school library could be made only in the light of such an interpretation of the problems of the metropolitan school as Dr. Hansen has provided. The immediate environment of the school library is the school; and to the extent that that environment is modified and changed by demographic and sociological factors, as well as by evolutionary innovations in educational goals and methods, the school library is challenged to re-evaluate traditional modes of organization and avenues of service. The school librarian shares with every school staff member the responsibility for meeting the needs of increasing and shifting populations that change the socio-economic character and the educational commitment of a community, and at the same time he shares a part of the responsibility of every librarian to the continuing intellectual life of man and the records of his culture.

A key statistic to the examination of any phase of the school program today is pointed out on the first page of a book edited by Passow, Education in Depressed Areas: "almost one of every six elementary and secondary school children now attends a public school in one of the sixteen largest American cities."¹ A survey of public school library statistics for 1962-63 was made by Dr. Richard L. Darling, then School Library Specialist in the Library Services Branch, and in

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his report he throws some light on the access to libraries of this one-sixth of U.S. school children. He compares the statistics for a group of twenty-one public school systems of cities with 500,000 or more population with the total survey sample of school systems in cities of 25,000 and above and finds that approximately the same percentage of schools in both groups reported the existence of centralized libraries, (71 percent) but that there were these important differences: fewer books per pupil in the large city schools (four), lower per pupil book expenditures, (\$1.01 for elementary and \$1.60 for secondary), and fewer school librarians for the number of pupils to be served, (1 to 1684 pupils).²

This profile of the library service in our large city systems, sketched against the figures of the national standards for school libraries as published in Standards for School Library Programs, (Chicago, ALA, 1960)³ which recommend for a good school library program at least ten books per pupil, a per pupil expenditure of from four to six dollars, and a librarian for each three hundred students up to nine hundred ninety-nine, with one for each four hundred above that figure, will provide a frame of reference for a discussion of school libraries in the large cities of metropolitan areas.

Modifications in the school environment that are challenging school librarians have resulted from changes in educational goals, changes in the content and structure of the curriculum, and in the organization of the school. Basically, these changes are not peculiar to the school of the metropolitan area, but it is in these areas that we find both extremes of quality levels of schools. Stimulating innovations and experimental programs are to be found in the school systems of a few large cities, and more often of the wealthy, stable, and long-established suburban communities with a high per-pupil investment in education that can support well-developed administrative organizations, sophisticated research staffs, centers of higher education with reservoirs of consultant help, and a rich environment for learning that includes well-housed, adequately stocked and staffed school libraries. Such educational programs may be contrasted with the newly established, bedroom suburban community with new families in small homes or rented semi-detached dwellings where inadequate tax dollars cannot keep pace with the basic community needs, let alone provide more than minimum space for classrooms. In such communities, as well as in more seriously deprived areas of urban sprawl and in deteriorating inner city cores, libraries are likely to be non-existent in the elementary schools, and sub-marginal in the secondary schools. Because of the inequalities of tax-based support, we may find these extremes within the same area, often in adjacent school districts.

Because of the extremes in the quality levels to be found in the schools of the metropolitan areas, it is difficult to generalize about

library provisions in the schools, but there are some common denominators to found in the issues that are challenging librarians as a result of the changing school—its goals, its organization for teaching, and its curriculum content. A number of these are assumptions related to the educational specifications of the school library program.

An assumption that is under particularly strong challenge today is that the role of the librarian is a passive one: he is a specialist on materials; he organizes these materials; he supplies them together with consultant help on request; and he gives as much reading guidance as possible. The challenge to this assumed role comes from any faculty that organizes into teaching teams, or that initiates a program with some degree of self-directed, independent study. The planning of materials collections to meet new curriculum areas—foreign languages in the elementary school; Chinese and Russian, History of the Far East, the Middle East, in the secondary school—demand a high degree of subject area specialization on the part of librarians; and the planning of facilities and schedules that will make it possible for the projected independent study to become a reality demand imagination, flexibility, and leadership on the part of the librarian. Librarians must be prepared to translate every new organizational innovation into its implications for library needs, to evaluate it critically in terms of its educational value, not for its immediate effect on yesterday's schedule and unfinished business. This exercise should be done at the initiation of new programs, such as institution of televised instruction, reorganization of curriculum content, and unscheduled programming. With good administrative planning the librarian will be a part of the planning team, but he must be ready to provide more than passive support. He must anticipate needs. Teaching materials should be on hand before requested if the librarian is fulfilling his role in today's school.

A second assumption that is under active challenge in the changing schools of the metropolitan areas is that the centralized library provides the highest degree of access to library resources for the school population.

The limitations to using the library created by the mere number of linear feet, quarter-miles of corridors, and flights of stairs that separate a student at the opposite end of a large suburban school campus from the library raise the question of a pattern of decentralization that will preserve the strengths of the centralized library system while making the actual flow of books from shelves to classrooms and resource centers more effective. Experience has demonstrated that the most effective method of providing access to the greatest range of learning materials, and to an efficient organization of resources is through a centralized library in every school. New and interesting innovations in school design are attempting to make possible a greater degree of individualized teaching for all children by

breaking-up the very large metropolitan area schools into "houses", or schools-within-schools. Dr. Karl R. Plath of Columbia University reported eighty-three schools using this plan over a year ago.⁴ The plans for the Evanston Township High School, as announced in the Chicago Sun-Times of October 21, 1965, call for a school to enroll approximately 6,000 children by 1967, in four schools on one campus.⁵ These schools will not be structured by grade or ability levels, or by special curricula, but will be each a cross-section of the four high school years. This plan presents dramatically the problem faced by school librarians in many schools, not necessarily only those moving into new buildings, who are asked to find ways to make library materials more accessible to teachers and students. The development of resource centers, "house" libraries, that will provide for both general study needs and individual interest reading, listening, and viewing is essential. Such collections will not replace the main library of the school which will serve as the administrative center as well as the source of special reference help and the consultant help for faculty and students that goes beyond the first levels of inquiry, but they will serve as "branch libraries", and will put library materials where students are.

The problems of decentralization came to the fore as soon as secondary schools began to implement, tentatively, some of the recommendations of the report of the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School.⁶ Study and resource centers associated with laboratories and subject areas where students could engage in independent study and search were an important aspect of the physical facilities to implement the kind of learning environment described in this report. The problems of providing the guidance of professional staff in these subsidiary library collections in order to help students and teachers make effective use of the materials, and of providing the duplication of books, encyclopedias, filmstrips, recordings, periodicals, etc., that are needed to make such collections useful, are not to be minimized; but these are primarily budget problems that can be met if the total school commitment is toward providing a quality education.

I am not certain that librarians realize to what degree an assumption long held, that the library should not be a study hall, is limiting the development of programs that will place an increased emphasis on independent study and self-directed inquiry. A learning environment which provides for problem solving, seeking-out sources of information, developing problems, collecting data, and coming to defensible conclusions must have a learning center accessible on a flexible pattern of scheduling that will allow for groups of different sizes, at different times, to use all types of resource materials, including textbooks. One of the greatest points of failure in many secondary school libraries is the lack of provision for the independent

study that we have accepted to a large degree as the most effective way of learning. Fully equipped centers for learning are essential in the modern school; is not the center for learning the library?

A third, rather vague assumption, largely because it is not usually verbalized thus, is that the librarian has all he can do to try to meet the needs of the reading-oriented students, and that the others must first learn to read. The operation of programs based on this unformulated assumption has brought to the profession a most serious challenge.

Ideally, our educational system is providing an equal opportunity for every child to develop to the limit of his potential. We have become increasingly aware in the past decade that there are many children (some reports say one-third of the population of our fourteen largest cities) who are disadvantaged by slum environment, low economic status and opportunity, lack of educational background of parents and by prejudicial treatment. These children, if they are to share equally in the economic and cultural benefits of our collective productivity, must have some compensatory attention and help in school. They are not a new group in our schools, but whereas they were dispersed before, now they have become identifiable as a mass within the large cities because of population shifts and migration of the poorest members of the population to the deteriorating core of the cities. A great many programs, involving a considerable array of professional talent and time, and much money, have been inaugurated to serve this need. From some of them a great deal has been learned, and one of the most commonly recurring references in reports of special programs of compensatory education in schools is to the need for greater access to libraries for the children who are trying to improve reading and study skills. These references provide important clues to what the role of the school library could be in programs of compensatory education. Examples are to be found in An Adventure in Human Relations by Dr. Muriel Crosby, in which she summarizes the experiences of the Wilmington, Delaware, schools in a Three Year Experimental Project on Schools in Changing Neighborhoods. She recommends that "a full-time library teacher is needed to supplement the efforts of the classroom teachers."⁷

In order to gather some evidence concerning the activities of the school libraries in elementary school programs of compensatory education, Miss Delores Vaughan, a graduate student at the University of Chicago,⁸ conducted a questionnaire survey of the thirty-six U.S. cities which were identified as providing compensatory education programs at the elementary level by the Educational Research Services of the NEA. Replies were received from seventeen school systems; nine reported having no elementary librarians and/or no central libraries in their elementary schools. Librarians were asked to indicate the range of services provided, including opportunities for

regular class visits, individual and small group visits, instruction in library use, storytelling by adults, book talks by adults, storytelling by children, individual reading conferences, provision of individual reading lists, tutoring of individuals and small groups. The majority of these activities are the traditional facets of any good school library program, and yet only one of the thirty-seven librarians returning a questionnaire indicated that all of these services were provided. The single most important factor in the richness of the program was the presence of a fulltime professional librarian. Among the thirty-seven, only one reported evening hours of service—in a school of 1100 students, with two professional librarians and two clerks. A total of eight schools reported that the library was open one or two hours before and/or after school.

The thirty-seven librarians participating in special programs for the culturally disadvantaged children, were asked to identify the types of service then believed to be most beneficial to the education and personal development of these children. One librarian had the useful idea that the library should be made attractive and available to groups in the community for various activities. The sponsorship of reading programs independently or in cooperation with the public library was mentioned by several librarians, apparently with the objective of encouraging those who are interested and capable of extra work. Creative dramatics, roundtable book discussions on radio, and creative writing were other activities mentioned. It is rather obvious that the thinking of too many of our profession is still oriented to traditional library procedures and the involvement of the reading-oriented child.

A depressing preoccupation with failure to meet present library standards was evident in the replies to a question in which librarians were asked what they would like to add to their facilities and programs if time and budget were no consideration—to “wish for the moon.” Most wishes were in the dimensions of felt inadequacies. Thirteen would introduce, or add to, audiovisual facilities; eight would like more individualized service, with facilities for independent use by children; six generalized more of everything; four would extend services beyond the present hours. Only six mentioned more personnel, a need that should be of first priority if more intensive work with individuals—children, teachers and parents—is the indispensable ingredient of service to children with special needs.

Let me continue to quote from Miss Vaughan's unpublished paper, to use the framework of her summary of what library programs in the elementary school ought to provide (for all children), especially in those schools where special planning has been instituted for the children of limited background. To provide an enriched learning environment, the library should have space for individual and group activities, with areas divided according to function—a storytelling

corner, reference area, individual study carrels, corners for quiet reading, space for listening and viewing film and telecast. Developing independence in learning requires opportunity for students to make independent use as well as directed use of materials, opportunity to come to the library to browse, to talk with the librarians until they feel at home to such an extent that they can ask for special help, to take as long as they need to find an appealing book. Extended hours during the school day and through the school year are essential.

There should be materials that reflect a multi-cultural society, that will help children to become aware of opportunities to select among many cultural opportunities, and through several media—folk songs, tales, literature of many peoples, reproductions of art, recordings, etc. Every child should find something he can read, something worth reading; and he should find graphic representations, three-dimensional objects, films (the 8 mm film is the most promising development because of its compact size and ease of operation), tapes, all of the rich variety of audiovisual media that would make possible the exercise of a variety of learning styles. There should be an intensified program of storytelling to give children experiences with literature, to set the stage for language development, growth in listening ability, and the stimulation of creative imagination.

This learning environment is no more than the definition of what a good school library ought to provide in every school; some of the needs have been underscored by past failures to provide for them. They have now become critical lacks. And the most critical lack of all is that of professional librarians to provide the continuous guidance in use of library materials from kindergarten on, to give unhurried personal assistance in preparing assignments, to devote the necessary time to the evaluation and selection of materials that will meet the interests and needs of students and teachers, to work closely with teachers, individually or as teams, to serve as the specialists in materials that librarians are prepared to be.

In a number of large cities, librarians have had dramatic and spontaneous demonstrations of the services that are desperately needed. After-school study centers have been organized by concerned citizens—parents, social workers, church leaders, college students, and others. They are providing, invariably, space for study during after-school hours, reference books, help with school assignments, special tutoring in reading. In addition, many are providing lending library services, storytelling and club groups, special student counseling help, trips to local museums, parks, industries, and places of interest—including public libraries. Libraries serving children have perhaps never had a more direct challenge; why were we not anticipating the vastly increased needs that are the basis for volunteer programs? It is an indictment of librarians that they have not engaged in continuous assessment of community needs, and have not exercised

active leadership in their institutions that would insure an opportunity to bring vision, imagination, and authoritative assessment of future developments to long-range planning. Many factors may be operating in the study-center situations, but there is no more pressing problem demanding our professional study. What stumbling blocks have we unwittingly put in the way of reluctant readers, lacking in confidence and curiosity? Is it only hours of service, is it a multitude of rules that may have questionable relationship to objectives, are our attentions absorbed by the most eager learners at the expense of the unskilled, is it lack of personnel, and, if so, have we exerted our leadership to demonstrate what the needs are, and how to meet them? All questions surrounding this important social development in the educational life of our metropolitan centers will demand careful deliberation, but they demand that attention now.

Whether our attention is drawn to one end of the quality scale of library service in the outstanding programs of certain of our wealthier suburban communities or to the other extreme of poverty-ridden inner city slum schools, there is one fact that seems to be abundantly clear—that access to knowledge and ideas, as represented by libraries, and aid in the interpretation of those resources, are common goals which the community as a whole shares with the school as a part of the community. There is an interrelationship between institutions, specifically between libraries, that is the basis of our evolving concept of continuing education. That this is true from a functional standpoint has been well demonstrated to us by the recent so-called “student invasion” of public and academic libraries. Students looking for materials to satisfy assigned inquiries or personal quests, with money in their pockets, given today’s access to public and private transportation are on the move; and in metropolitan areas that offer a tempting array of library resources, such as Chicago, for example, where a student can conceivably start with the Northwestern University libraries at the north, work his way down the lakefront with only a slight detour to the Chicago Public Library’s main library, to John Crerar farther south, and to the University of Chicago twenty blocks farther, not to mention all of the special business, professional and industrial libraries, e.g. the Municipal Reference Library, on the way. Secondary school students have tried to do just this in the past, in such numbers that restrictions had to be established. There would seem to be reason, however, to assess our access to library resources on a full community basis rather than school by school and town library by town library, and to take steps in our planning to open the paths of communication so that the inequalities of community tax support and citizen commitment cannot be allowed to curtail the access of students to the total resources of a community. Such a goal could be accomplished through regional resource centers, through a network of communications that would provide requested searching,

telephonic and televised bibliographic service, and print-out copying of materials, and consultant service that would not be available or necessary in every individual library.

Finally, the "lighted school" of community planners should include a "lighted library," open for as many hours outside the regular school schedule as community needs dictate, including summer school and vacation times. There should be available library service to night school and adult education classes, as well as to other community activities that use the school as a program center.

But, if there are challenges, there are also new resources coming to light—in both personnel and leadership. The most encouraging and hopeful evidence of library improvement in the metropolitan areas is in the increase in the number of county, district and school system supervisors. Data to support the importance of this trend is to be found in a report by Professor Mary V. Gaver of the Graduate School of Library Service at Rutgers, The State University, New Jersey. This report was made as an appraisal of the 159 school systems that have participated in the past two years' competitions for the Encyclopedia Britannica School Library Awards Program to recognize outstanding progress in the development of elementary school libraries. "Of the nineteen systems winning finalist place in the first two years in which awards have been made . . . fourteen have district school library supervisors. Underscoring the importance of this provision is the fact that 63 of the 139 nonfinalists also have a person employed with system-wide responsibility for all school libraries or for elementary school libraries alone. A survey of the dates of appointment of these supervisors indicates real accelerations since 1958."⁹

The appointment of system-wide supervisors, in elementary school districts often as the first step in library development, has made possible the long-range planning for sound book selection policies, consultant help for administrators and supervisory personnel and teachers, step-by-step growth of libraries in each school, system-wide purchasing and processing, and maximum access to resources. With accelerated consolidation of small school districts or the emergence of other types of system organization, an increase in centralized planning and coordination of system-wide development by this pattern of organization can be anticipated. The presence of a corps of experienced library supervisors in a state can be expected to raise the quality of service to a high level, with judicious planning for the improvement of library holdings and facilities, and the training of personnel with funds from the recent Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and the National Defense Education Act.

It is much too early to make any kind of prediction concerning the impact upon the level of school library service of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965: Title I, with funds for

assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with concentration of children from low-income families, would seem to have great educational potential for the central city areas, among others. Discussions of the possibilities have pointed out that needs such as instructional materials, tutoring programs, evening hours of library service for study facilities and pre-school programs, may be identified as priorities in many areas, and these have immediate implications for school libraries. Title II provides the important opportunity to improve school library collections—print and non-print materials—through the authorization of grants for the acquisition of school library resources, textbooks, and other printed and published instructional materials for the use of children and teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools. It is in Title III that the vision and professional skill of librarians will be measured, with an opportunity to share in the designing of educational activities and services which are supplementary to existing programs of instruction. Demonstration schools with libraries that are effective learning centers; regional resources centers that provide not only the wide range of instructional materials, including all of the books that would make a school library a true arm of teaching, but also the services of professional personnel to interpret the content and effective use of all materials; regional reference centers with all modern communication technology to put them at the service of all schools in the area—these may be upon many drawing boards, together with other plans to raise dramatically the quality level of education.

Another source of Federal help for the improvement of school libraries is available under the expansion of Title III in the National Defense Education Act as amended by the 88th Congress. This act now provides financial help for improving and strengthening programs in science, mathematics, modern foreign languages, and other critical subjects—history, civics, geography, English and reading. Audio-visual materials and equipment, printed and published materials other than textbooks may be acquired, and the specialized equipment of audiovisual libraries (which may be a part of the school library), instructional materials centers or curriculum centers may be included.

The key to the effective design of new patterns of library programs to meet the specifications of the changing school is the librarian. For his preparation to perform this important role, the library profession and particularly the library educator must take the responsibility.

As in many other specializations in librarianship, school librarians are in desperately short supply. For a considerable time in the future I am certain that we will be welcoming librarians who have had a well-designed library science minor in their undergraduate training. At the same, however, we shall, I hope, be investing a great deal of our time and effort in continuing education, and in

in-service programs that will provide nourishment for leadership qualities and flexibility of approach to professional decisions. I cannot help but think that undergraduate programs which present the general principles of librarianship, rather than being adapted to serve one specialization, will set the stage for stronger professional leadership and provide more personal resources with which to plan with wisdom for long range development in the face of change. An essential ingredient of the professional training of school librarians continues to be a sound general education and the preparation of a good teacher. Increasingly, for teachers and teacher-librarians—and I use that term in the best sense of a librarian who is performing a teaching role in every point of contact with teachers and students—the school is seeking people who are able scholars, with a field of specialization, as able teachers. We are seeking no less in recruiting school librarians.

The changing environment within the school will continue to challenge the assumptions on which school librarians make decisions and execute plans. Environments without the school are no less a dimension of the program; the librarian joins other educators, including other librarians, in reacting to an awakened sense of responsibility to make that environment a nourishing one for all children.

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HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE METROPOLITAN ENVIRONMENT

E. K. Fretwell

Other papers prepared for this significant conference on the "Changing Environment for Library Services in Metropolitan Areas" do an admirable job of describing the population characteristics of our large urban centers, and of delineating changes in the social structure, employment patterns, and public school systems. All of these, appropriately, relate directly or indirectly to the vital role of libraries and librarians in the perplexing yet exciting setting which the great metropolitan centers of our country represent.

It is my privilege as a university dean in the central office of The City University of New York to participate in the administration of a publicly supported multi-campus institution with some 142,000 students, most of them full-time students in tuition-free programs at the undergraduate level. During the past few years our well-known and traditionally liberal arts-centered colleges (City, Hunter, Brooklyn, and Queens) have been joined by a Graduate Center which awarded our first Ph.D. degrees last spring, by a baccalaureate degree-granting College of Police Science, and by six two-year community colleges, offering both transfer as well as job-related career programs. From this vantage point—some call it a precarious perch—I am made aware daily of the unique role of the urban higher institution today: what ought to be done, the pitfalls and road-blocks, and the possibilities of success.

I would like to offer some introductory comments on the role of urban higher education (I shall use the term *metroversity*) and then pose three major questions:

- A. What are the expanding roles which urban-based higher education institutions are seeking to fill?
- B. What steps may be taken to accelerate change and provide innovation toward achieving these roles?
- C. What implications are there for libraries and librarians related to metropolitan colleges and universities?

Let us turn first to some concepts of what a higher institution—particularly a university—may be. Cardinal Newman, in his Idea of a University, speaks of the university as needing to be venerable, beautiful, and useful. Clark Kerr in his The Uses of the University

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perceives that the university is the major source of that "invisible product, knowledge, [which] may be the most powerful single element in our culture, affecting the rise and fall of professions and even of social classes, of regions and even of nations."¹

To these I would add my own concept of the dream of a "Metro-versity," the new type of higher education complex without which our great cities of today and tomorrow cannot live. This modern urban university must be useful, and in so becoming, achieves a kind of practical beauty, even though its campus lacks stately elms and its red brick walls are a bit soot-stained. In Kerr's words, it must create knowledge. At least some of this knowledge should be related to the solution of its city's problems. It must, like the ancient god Janus, look inward and outward simultaneously. It must add to the concept of research, the idea of service. Yet it must not let itself become bogged down, in the words of the late President Lotus Coffman of the University of Minnesota, into becoming merely an academic service station.

The role of great cities in the United States does not need long description here. Population density and "layers" of government are both amazing! Benjamin Chinitz notes in the special September 1965 issue of Scientific American that in New York City, the Borough of Manhattan population density ranges as high as 77,000 people per square mile.² He observes 550 separate municipal governments within the New York metropolitan region with its twenty-two counties including 16,139,000 residents in three states. Solon T. Kimball and James E. McClellan report that urban population rose to seventy percent of the United States total in 1960.³ Yet, as they point out, "eleven of the twelve largest cities (Los Angeles was the exception) declined in size." Suburban population increased almost three times faster than the rate for the nation as a whole!

Kimball and McClellan view Los Angeles as a pattern toward which other metropolitan areas are moving.⁴ Los Angeles should not be dismissed, they remark, as it was in a New York Times article which described it as "a horizontal monster crawling almost endlessly from the sea to the desert and mountains!"

With an increasing percentage of the total United States population living in metropolitan areas of one type or another, it is high time that we as citizens, librarians, scholars, and professional educators, take a look at what this urbanization of living—and of learning—really means now and in the years ahead.

We turn now to the first of the three questions.

A. What are the expanding roles which urban-based institutions are seeking to fill?

Observation indicates that there are at least a half dozen major roles. Your knowledge and experience may suggest even more!

1. The expansion of facilities to accommodate more students in traditional fields of baccalaureate and graduate study. This means, to oversimplify a bit, doing a lot more of what traditional colleges and universities are already doing. I place this first so as to avoid underemphasizing. Whether the institution is public or private in terms of basic support, there is the financial problem of providing instructional and administrative staff, physical plant (including laboratories), and of course libraries. Much of the expansion can be linked to the growing college attendance pattern all over the United States. Time magazine for October 15, 1965, for example, included in the cover story on U.S. Commissioner of Education Francis Keppel a chart (p. 62) reminding us that by 1970 close to fifty percent of the population age seventeen will be enrolling in college.⁵ The importance of keeping the college doors open for qualified students of low income must be stressed in the traditional arts and science programs. It is even more important in ways to be described in a moment.

2. Community colleges have an increasingly vital role in big cities. At one time there were those who thought that junior or two-year colleges were just for small towns not big enough to boast a four-year college. Neither Chicago nor New York believes this myth! Following closely on the heels of Joliet Township High School where the public junior college was first conceived in 1901, the Chicago public schools began in 1911 what became the oldest big-city system of public community or junior colleges in the United States. With one notable depression-year interruption, the system has continued ever since. While Los Angeles has probably passed Chicago in terms of total enrollment, the pioneering pattern of the Chicago City Junior College in the development of both transfer and terminal (or career) programs was a harbinger of significant development which gained momentum in various California cities after World War I, and in the past five to ten years has made educational history in New York, Miami, St. Louis, Cleveland, and other major centers. While friendly critics such as Grant Venn⁶ and Leland L. Medsker⁷ point out that many community colleges fail to provide sufficient variety or depth in technical and job-related curricula, the growing range of jobs for which the two-year college may be the gateway suggests more action in the years just ahead.

As a result of various stimuli, including federal assistance, community colleges all over the country are developing new job-related curricula and revamping old ones. To date, much attention has been focussed on such clusters of programs as those in engineering-related, business, and paramedical fields. A fourth cluster appears to be developing under the general heading of "social technology" which includes preparation for employment in the fields of correction administration, child care, recreation leadership,

urban development, and a variety of other jobs related to community agencies and city government.

3. Discovery of submerged talent among the disadvantaged. For some Americans, as the Educational Policies Commission recently pointed out, barriers to personal advancement have never fallen.⁸ These are the culturally, socially, and economically disadvantaged. Many of them live in the big cities. Many of them are Negroes or of Spanish-speaking background. For them, what is higher education's role? The traditional pattern has been, in many parts of the country, to establish qualitative barriers to college attendance based on verbally-related "objective tests" and grade-point averages in high school. These criteria are reasonably good predictors of academic success in college, but, as one staff member of the College Entrance Examination Board has pointed out, they tend to limit educational and thus social mobility for disadvantaged youth. Newer approaches to testing, special remedial programs (many beginning in the public schools), extra guidance and tutoring have already helped thousands of aspiring but disadvantaged students gain entrance into college and eventually graduate. Additional financial assistance also plays an important role.

4. Newer approaches to professional education for urban employment. Mention has been made of traditional liberal arts type programs and to newer developments in the two-year community colleges. It is now appropriate to note in passing the vital role of the urban college or university in the educating or re-educating of those who teach in big city public school systems, those who serve as social workers in both public and private agencies, and those police officers who seek to maintain law and justice in what is sometimes thought of as the asphalt jungle. (By actual count, our university is now engaged in conversations with at least nine separate parts of the government of The City of New York on the subject of initiating or enlarging collegiate programs of a specialized nature for their personnel. Most programs are now of an in-service nature, but I foresee a growing concern with pre-service education.)

5. Sub-collegiate programs as added responsibilities for metropolitan colleges and universities. Broadening college opportunity as suggested above is important, but even so it is unlikely that one hundred percent of the college-age population desires to attend college as we now know it or could profit from what are traditionally thought of as college-level programs. Until recently, the higher education enterprise paid little attention to those who couldn't get in. While there are only a few signs of a beginning trend, I see for urban colleges and universities a growing role in the improvement of education for a greater portion of the citizenry, not only through the myriad adult education courses offered on many campuses and at convenient extension centers, but also through such steps as (a) working

consciously to improve the school systems beginning as early, say, as Project Head Start, (b) training leadership to work in community agencies, and (c) developing such educational concepts cooperatively with public school systems as the proposed Educational Skills Center our university hopes to open on the site of the 1965 World's Fair.

6. Cultural advantages comparable to those in foreign countries offered in urban centers. Our friendly rival, New York University, invented not long ago a special attraction entitled "The Junior Year in New York." Drawing transfer students on a one-year basis from colleges in other parts of the country, N.Y.U. capitalized on its location in one of the great cultural centers of the world and consciously built into its program not only the conventional campus academic and other activities, but also placed emphasis on museums, galleries, musical events, the United Nations, the business community, and of course the wide range of library facilities found in New York City. In Washington, D.C., the American University has devised a "Washington Semester," drawing students from out-of-town institutions who would like a first-hand look at the processes of national government. While these are but two examples, virtually every true metropolitan center has unique attractions which might make such arrangements desirable. (In turn, urban students might enjoy exchanging the hard sidewalks for a country campus for a semester or a year.) Antioch College in Yellow Springs, Ohio, is hardly an urban institution, but as a result of its off-campus cooperative program many of its students receive college credit for work performed in metropolitan centers!

We turn now to our second question.

B. What steps may be taken to accelerate change and provide innovation toward achieving new roles in urban higher institutions?

1. The change in concept. I suggested above by indirection a four-fold change in concept for the urban institution. For brief clarification I repeat it. The urban institution, if it is really to serve its people, must:

- offer traditional instruction for more people
- provide remedial services, financial assistance, and imaginative admissions procedures for the disadvantaged
- devise new or substantially modified curricula for fields of employment (most of it in the public sector) indigenous to the city
- assist those concerned with providing education at the sub-collegiate level

All of this can be done only if the university or college believes in the "Metroversity" concept of being more than a traditional institution, has the skilled and motivated leadership and other personnel to do the job, and has the public's support. This sounds like a huge

task, and indeed it becomes a paradoxical one. In many cases, the entrenched faculty members would like to go on doing what they're doing (the traditional instruction!), while the public in general and city government in particular are lighting a fire under the college or university to get going on the other three phases of the concept! This is related to the steps which follow.

2. The need for a new breed. Running a metroversity makes unusual demands on the people who teach and on those who serve in other ways. While the role of the teacher in teaching may not be too different (he sticks to his field, be it Latin or urban planning), he may become a "grantsman" seeking foundation and governmental research for his work. Particularly if he is successful, he starts living in two worlds and must plan even harder than before to see that his teaching does not suffer on the campus while he helps City Hall (or the White House) solve problems on a seemingly larger scale. The chief administrator—and quite probably the librarian—has already been living in this double world for some time. He must convince His Honor the Mayor that the institution would be glad to help solve problems of water supply and/or pollution at the same time that he must assure the faculty (and occasionally his deans) that the university is not going to overexpand or become "non-academic." It takes people of fortitude, character, and ingenuity. Perhaps we should work even harder to train up a new generation to carry on in these increasingly gruelling roles!

3. Organization and location. It was allegedly Robert Maynard Hutchins who suggested that a university was merely a bunch of buildings held together tenuously by a loyalty to the same sewer system. Whether this was ever so, I suspect that this last remaining link is becoming passé. Several trends are becoming evident which indicate higher education's adjustment to the current urban scene:

- a) Branch campuses are springing up in the suburbs, or, in the case of a suburban institution, downtown. Northwestern University, for example, has been in Evanston for at least a century, but operates extensive programs in Chicago proper. Our City University will be soon adding Richmond College, an upper division unit, the first of its kind in our part of the country. It will have no freshmen or sophomores and will concentrate on serving community college graduates.
- b) New institutions start at once with a multi-campus arrangement. The new junior college of St. Louis and St. Louis county began operation simultaneously on three campuses—one urban, two suburban.
- c) Great state universities have finally discovered the big city. Through its Medical Center and Navy Pier operations, the University of Illinois has provided a variety of services in the Chicago area. The new and exciting Congress Circle development is

another strong step in the direction of meeting urban needs. The University of Missouri, formerly prairie-oriented in Columbia, now has major campuses in both Kansas City and St. Louis; the University of Wisconsin has discovered Milwaukee, and the State University System of Ohio is developing a major center in Cleveland.

d) Institutions supported locally from public or private funds in big cities are becoming state institutions. In Philadelphia, Temple University has moved further along the road toward becoming a state institution. A few years ago the privately-financed University of Buffalo was merged into the State University of New York system. And in Detroit, Wayne University (formerly locally supported has become Wayne State University.

e) Greater utilization of resources becomes possible, and future planning of facilities more logical, through state-wide master planning. With only a few exceptions, states clear across the nation now have at least a rough idea of what demands will be made on higher institutions in the years ahead, what facilities both public and private already exist, and as a result, what remains to be done. It is not a simple matter of arithmetic to predict the future, however. Policy decisions need to be made as to whether colleges are to be expanded or new ones built near where the students live, thus obviating dormitory costs but increasing parking lot sizes; or whether it is desirable through indirect subsidy in some cases to provide the twenty-four hour experience of going away to college.

f) Renovation of existing buildings makes new space available faster for instructional uses. Developing a network of campuses—small or large—throughout a city brings college closer to students, avoids excessive institutional size. Neighborhood colleges might become undesirable, however, if they encouraged limited horizons or perpetuated segregated patterns already existing in housing.

4. Funding. The pendulum has already swung far in the direction of publicly supported institutions carrying an increasingly large part of the enrollment load. But every one of you here can name a few large private institutions in urban settings which draw much if not a majority of their support from federal grants. It looks, indeed, like a mixed economy, even in higher education! While corporation giving and gifts from individual donors have reached new heights recently, it is apparent that federal and state sources will have to meet increasing costs. Enlarging federal attention to urban problems would augur well for the metropolitan college or university. How a state legislature still rurally oriented might vote could be another matter, however.

5. The idea of an innovation shop. College faculty members are often reluctant to go along with a new idea ("I don't follow all those fads!") unless they believe they had something to do with its development. This discovery, plus an honest recognition of the talents of uncounted college professors, has led to a variety of somewhat institu-

tionalized ways of fostering innovation in higher education, and has encouraged experimentation with new approaches to various problems—including urban ones.

Our university, as an example, has set up a Center for Urban Development. Cooperatively with seven other major higher institutions, the Center operates under a Federal grant and is engaged in such projects as: an evaluation of the educational aspects of urban welfare and antipoverty agencies; studies into the cognitive and intellectual development of pre-school children; probes into the conflicts created by school integration; feasibility studies into the application of computer-assisted instruction in big-city school systems; a revision of English-language teaching methods in urban schools.

Let us turn to the third and last question.

C. What implications are there for libraries and librarians related to metropolitan colleges and universities?

(At this point I shall stick out my neck and probably reveal some of my ignorance in regard to library matters. Please be kind! In return, I shall refrain from mentioning the “explosion of knowledge” by that term, in spite of the fact that I was a student on the Wesleyan University campus in Connecticut when Librarian Fremont Rider was wringing his hands over the gigantic future expansions of the library contemplated at Yale, and as a result in 1944 or thereabouts invented the microcard.)⁹

1. There will be increased blurring of the line as to what's college and what isn't. This may make some of us uncomfortable, but we might as well get used to it. Several examples may be cited.

a) In those large cities with good public library systems, college students rely less on the college library (especially if it is inadequate) than would otherwise be the case. Obviously this puts greater burdens on the public library in terms of collection, space, and service. As a result, state aid to public libraries should, in my opinion, be markedly increased.

b) Some of the new students in colleges of the future will be less proficient at reading than we wish they were. While librarians should not be called upon to become remedial reading teachers, libraries will probably need to stock books that are quite easy to read but are on adult subjects.

c) If use of home study grows (with or without recordings, programmed instruction, or television), as many people think it will, there will be a run on library collections by those seeking college credit via the proficiency examinations already in use in some states, and probably to be made available nationally by the College Board people in the near future. What does this do to demands on libraries? Are these “seekers” to be treated as college students?

2. The growth of commuter colleges in metropolitan areas will

find thousands of students without sufficient study space at home or elsewhere. Everyone knows what this means! College administrators will do well to provide study space for commuter students to use between their classes, where they can work effectively and possibly in close access to library collections. It may seem pointless to use expensive library space strictly for "study hall" purposes, but on the other hand, it is bad educational business to make libraries so hard to get into that use of books beyond basic student-owned texts is discouraged. Commuter students enrolled in independent study programs will most certainly need to have carrels or other appropriate study space provided.

3. The growth of existing colleges and establishment of new ones will provide opportunity for development of exciting new libraries. As a consumer rather than operator or designer of libraries, I see no reason why college and university libraries cannot be comfortable and efficient at the same time. If freshmen are scared away from using libraries, it may not be entirely by the long lines at term-paper or exam time, but by the rather forbidding exteriors, the hard chairs, or the poor lighting. I am not suggesting that all libraries fit this category, but I do rejoice when I find students who look interested, happy, and comfortable all at the same time. Of great importance also is sufficient, well-organized library staff work space. Librarians know more about this than I do. I am merely suggesting that they take advantage of new campus plans to get what good libraries need.

4. New occasions breed new headings. The study of urban problems, to cite but one example, will probably bring forth a goodly supply of monographs, bibliographies, and mimeographed papers that are worthwhile and up-to-the-minute, but may be hard to classify or at least to circulate. Librarians now have the answer for what to do when a mimeographed report with no hard cover comes in, and right behind it a request for wide circulation. The answer is the wonderful Xerox copier! By means of Xerox, new material can be sent to the binder and copies can be made available. By means of this machine, new material does not have to go at once to the binder where it becomes "old" if procedures become delayed.

5. Talent can be recruited. It is apparent that the number of library positions in metropolitan college and university libraries already on the increase, is going to make it more difficult to recruit and hold good people unless there are some long overdue promotions. For my part, I hope that the growing trend to recognize appropriately prepared members of professional library staffs as bona fide members of the regular academic instructional staff with academic ranks and titles will continue. Dean Downs and I have had several interesting conversations on this point. His recent consulting work for the City University libraries has helped to make possible some great

differences in career possibilities in the libraries of The City University of New York. Training support as suggested in the Higher Education Act of 1965, to cite but one source, will also be of assistance, in attracting and improving library personnel and procedures.

I would express the hope that everyone in academic administration will come to have the rich and pleasant experiences I have had in getting to know librarians as they really are and not as a hard-dying stereotype portrays them. Modern librarianship, as my colleague Hal Bousfield points out, is a dynamic profession and this must be recognized when recruitment is contemplated.

Now to conclude. I have attempted to touch on some of the expanding roles which urban-based higher institutions are seeking to fill, to delineate some of the steps which lead to accelerated change and innovation, and to wind up with a few implications for libraries and librarians.

At the inauguration of the Chancellor of our University just a year ago this week, the Mayor of our City recalled the historic role of the University's colleges over the years of the past. Looking toward the future, he noted, "We must look to our City University for help in solving some of [our] problems or even, to begin with, to help us define them We must now look to the City University to help us find answers to the difficult questions which beset us in the fields of sociology, of urban transportation, of urban financing, of urban planning and regional management to mention a few. The City University must be an arm of the city in thought and action on the problems of the city. It must be our laboratory, our arsenal of academic expertise."¹⁰

I like to think that the spirit of these challenges will energize higher institutions in metropolitan settings all over our country. And in the midst of this arsenal of academic expertise I look forward to finding wise, dedicated, and active librarians. The seriousness of urban problems, as our Chancellor, Dr. Albert H. Bowker, has pointed out, commands attention from the entire scholarly community.¹¹

Note: While the author assumes full responsibility for his own opinions and any errors, he is appreciative of constructive help from his CUNY colleagues: Professor H. G. Bousfield, Brooklyn College; Professor Bernard Kreissman of the City College; as well as Dean Harry Levy, Mrs. Rebecca Straus, Mr. Raymond Bacchetti, and Mr. Robert Birnbaum, all of the CUNY central staff.

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ACADEMIC LIBRARIES AMIDST CHANGING INSTITUTIONAL DIRECTIONS

William H. Carlson

The one word in the title of this Institute about which there can be no argument is "change." The environment in which our libraries function and the ends and purposes for which we as librarians, exist are altering before our very eyes. Cumulatively the changes have been tremendous, even within so short a period as my personal professional career.

I do not feel, as a participant for almost forty years now, that the transition has, as Ralph Ellsworth maintained in his University of Tennessee Library lecture of 1962, been violent.¹ It has been sustained, though, and it has accelerated and is accelerating on a rising curve. Change and transition have indeed been a way of life for Man in his persistent march to dominate his little planet. It is said that when Adam and Eve were fleeing Eden and the wrath of God, Adam whispered to Eve, "Darling, we are living in an age of transition."

Violent or not, change has been so substantial in our entire society, and particularly in our higher educational institutions and their libraries, that the library world of today is a vastly different place and profession than the one I entered in 1926. It is quite possible that librarians, and particularly the oldsters among them, like myself, may look back to the first half of the twentieth century, with its warm and attractive codex books, its proven methodology, and its clear sense of knowing what is important, as the Eden of their profession. Conceivably, they may murmur, regretfully one to another, as they flee the computers, we are living in an age of transition.

I hasten to add that I do not personally feel that the computers are going to drive us out of our Eden, and the codex book along with us. To most of the oldsters, however, I suspect that the promises and prospects of the future may seem a rather dismal departure from the happy days of individual empire building.

The manifestation of our modern society which the word "metropolitan" stands for is not easily defined or delimited. There can be many boundaries, varied responses and reactions, psychologically, aesthetically, spiritually. Certainly, metropolis is a child of our science and our technology. In the long, long view it may

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possibly, as Man multiplies and multiplies again, and again, really drive him out of his Eden. God, we know, has lots of time. The ultimate metropolis could be His long term way of inflicting the ultimate punishment.

We are already well on our way to the universal metropolis. As William Birenbaum has observed, "This country is now an urban-cultural nation." The great metropolitan areas already with us, where one city flows into another for miles on end with little if any diminution of congestion are the concrete proof of this observation. Our urbanization, says Birenbaum, follows inevitably from the flowering of science and technology.²

Because we are so increasingly urbacultural what I have to say here will be applicable, in varying degree, to academic libraries throughout the length and breadth of our land. Our means of communication have become so quick and convenient and our rates of travel so rapid that there are now very few academic institutions which are not rubbing shoulders with sister institutions, if not literally, then at least in a spirit of awareness and of similarity of problems and ways of coping with them.

From Washington, D. C., to Boston and further, we have city after city, cheek by jowl. Rhode Island is in effect a city-state. On the west coast it is predicted that we shall have, and in the not too distant future from the way things are going, a strip metropolitan area from San Diego to Vancouver, British Columbia. Even without such tight and rather frightening physical juxtaposition of communities, the annihilation of space which our technologies have brought us makes us all neighbors. And as neighbors we in the libraries of this continent share, and frequently closely share, the same kinds of problems and also, happily, the same kinds of challenges and opportunities.

I am not maintaining that our libraries are all alike or ever will be. Our history, however, shows our academic institutions, and their libraries, to be developing more and more points of resemblance. The separate land grant universities, for the most part founded as colleges, and the state supported liberal arts universities, illustrate the trend toward similarity. One of the least urban of the separate land-grant institutions is Washington State University at Pullman, Washington, a somewhat isolated community of about 15,000 people located in a rather sparsely settled region. Its sister institution, the University of Washington in Seattle, functions in a large metropolitan community.

Fifty years ago these Washington institutions were very different. Now their institutional directions are moving them more and more toward similarity, with a full-fledged liberal arts program at Pullman and more and more emphasis on the sciences and technology at Seattle. At both institutions there are lively on-going research

programs, federally funded and otherwise. Both universities face similar problems of construction of buildings to house what they do. Budgeting, student enrollment and housing, and curriculum and research development, these are all common problems requiring the same kind of confrontation and solution. Similar valid comparisons can be made, I believe, in every state with separate land-grant universities. Iowa and Iowa State, and Michigan and Michigan State are perhaps even more striking illustrations.

It is also true, I believe, that the urban universities in the sense of those institutions founded by municipalities and drawing their chief sustenance from them or even from private funds, are becoming more and more like the state universities. Some of these institutions now receive extensive financial support from their states. Some, like Wayne State University, have evolved into full-fledged state universities. In many of them, substantial research, some of it federally funded, goes on. Their problems and needs thereby become much like those of other universities, conditioned only in part by their metropolitan environment.

The four year colleges, and particularly those which are privately financed, exhibit less likeness, yet even they are more alike in programs, outlook, and philosophies of operation than they were a hundred years ago, or fifty, or even twenty-five. It is a safe assumption that if one of the pleasant and efficient new library buildings that are appearing in increasing numbers on the campuses of these colleges should, by the magician's wand, be dropped, with its books, on some other four-year campus of similar size, it would serve the receiving college nearly equally well.

With recognition of the urbacultural nature of the environment of nearly all our academic institutions, what of the academic library situation in our clearly metropolitan communities? A check of the American Library Directory of 1964 reveals, in selected areas, academic and academic-like libraries in the following numbers.

In the Los Angeles area there are thirty-three libraries containing about 6,000,000 books; of these sixteen have less than 50,000 volumes. The Berkeley-San Francisco area, exclusive of Stanford, has seventeen libraries containing some 5,000,000 volumes; eight of these report less than 50,000 volumes. In the immediate Chicago complex there are some twenty-six libraries owning around 9,000,000 books; seventeen of these libraries fall in the below 50,000 volume bracket. In the Boston-Cambridge area there are thirty-three academic libraries owning about 12,000,000 books; eighteen of the thirty-three own less than 50,000 volumes.

The various boroughs of New York City are, as we would expect, rich, very rich, in academic institutions and libraries. There we find some seventy-three academic libraries, more or less. Including the New York Public Library, which is an academic resource

of incalculable value, these libraries probably have by now 20,000,000 volumes. Twenty-two of them, however, own fewer than 50,000 volumes.

Representative of the smaller metropolitan areas of the country, there are in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area fourteen academic libraries. Only four of these fall in the less than 50,000 volume brackets.

I make no pretense about the above figures being precise. To achieve this there would need to be a careful delimitation of each of the areas and of what is an academic library. Nevertheless, this is a meaningful assemblage of library data, just as meaningful probably as if it had been arrived at by meticulous analysis.

Each of the areas is dominated by academic library giants, Columbia in New York City, Harvard in Cambridge, the University of Chicago, Crerar and Newberry in Chicago, and so on. To me, however, it is the number of smaller libraries in the 100,000 or under, or 50,000 or under, volume category which has been somewhat of a revelation. These smaller libraries deserve and need, it seems to me, more attention, and more help, in the aggregate, than they have heretofore had.

Those of us concerned with the larger academic libraries with their multi-millions statistics need to be more aware of these small institutions and their libraries than many of us have been. There is, I am certain, a wide range among them. Some, even though in the heart of metropolis, may be more cloistered and remote than libraries in some rural settings. Others are in mid-stream of the city hurly-burly. Still others constitute specialized collections with unique subject strengths. Many of these institutions, perhaps most, provide personalized education, the lack of which threatens to be the Achilles' heel of the large universities.

Many library implications for the total metropolis surround these small institutions. Their students, and this certainly also applies to those of the large metropolitan universities, are often commuters. Many are part-time students, often with full-time jobs, who may not be on campus longer than to attend classes. As a result they must find their library resources elsewhere than in their own colleges.

Warren G. Haas³ reports that "most of New York's higher education students use, and use heavily, the wealth of library resources available to them in New York City to supplement, and no doubt, in some instances, to supplant, the libraries provided at their own schools." Students of the New York area operate, says Mr. Haas, on the extremely practical principle of using the closest accessible library, often a public or branch library, which can supply the books they need. He quotes one student as saying that the only drawback to using the Brooklyn Public Library on Sunday "is that

every student in Brooklyn is using the library on that day."

Mr. Haas also says that it has been almost traditional for The New York Times to run pictures of hordes of students flooding the New York Public Library at Christmas time. This student influx is, however, only a peak load, perhaps somewhat similar to what academic libraries experience just before exams. The library continuously services large numbers of students.

The New York Public, for which I have unbounded admiration, has met this situation courageously, head-on. Jean Godfrey reports that the Library, alarmed at inroads made by students at the expense of other users, on the tremendous and irreplaceable collections in its Reference Department has purchased, with a private gift, a commercial building opposite the Main Library. On this site it will open, in 1966 or 1967, an Undergraduate Library equipped with 500,000 volumes. The City of New York will assume the costs of operating this library.⁴

All of us in academic library circles are familiar with the under graduate libraries which are being established in our larger universities. An Undergraduate Library, established by a public library—this, however, is something new. Nor is it being created on any niggardly basis. It is conceivable, indeed highly likely, it seems to me, that this library may be the prototype for similar libraries in other metropolitan areas, not only to relieve pressures and wear and tear on valuable research collections but, frankly and directly, as a convenience to working and commuting students. The progressive metropolis of the future may well have a series of such libraries supplementing its college and university libraries. In our affluent society, and with increasing Federal funding in prospect such use of money might bear richer and better fruits than some other expenditures.

There are many other ways in which the smaller metropolitan academic libraries, and indeed all the smaller colleges, can be and should be helped. It takes only a glance at the U.S. Office of Education statistics to see that many of these small libraries are impoverished, operating on budgets so miniscule and salaries so low that one wonders how they can open their doors for service, much less develop their collections. Often one finds in these places librarians so attached to the institution or library, (or held by other local ties) that they serve at salaries below the going rates for new library school graduates, sometimes even below present clerical rates. A program of grants, federal or otherwise, intelligently conceived so as not to destroy local initiative, directed toward upgrading these impoverished smaller institutions could do much to improve undergraduate higher education in metropolis and through our entire country. It could help, too, to relieve pressure on the very large institutions.

In addition to concern in the large academic libraries for, and

aid to, the very small libraries, a cooperative approach can do much to develop and strengthen the smaller college libraries. Under a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education to the Kansas City Regional Council on Higher Education, Robert Downs has conducted a survey of the potential for cooperation among ten undergraduate college libraries in the Kansas City area.⁵ Of these, seven are Protestant and three are Catholic. One is a Junior College. One is located 110 miles from Kansas City. This in itself illustrates the reach of metropolitan areas, as also does Mr. Downs' observation that there are 5,000,000 library volumes within a 130-mile radius of Kansas City.

Of the libraries in the Downs survey all but one are private institutions. Noting that all these institutions provide an exceedingly valuable educational function, Mr. Downs points out that inflation, increasing enrollments, exploding demands, require subsidization of them in many areas. For the libraries he proposes a Regional Library Authority which would be concerned with the acquisition of important materials, including specialized scholarly resources, cooperative storage and improvement of access to the existing library collections. Advisory services for the libraries, sponsoring of centralized processing and seeking additional finances are also suggested as activities of the Regional authority.

There is probably not a metropolitan area in the country where a Regional Library Authority such as this would not be constructively and fruitfully busy. As applied to the New York City area such an authority, or an integrated group of authorities could tremendously upgrade and improve the small academic libraries. It could, as one example, work closely with the new Undergraduate Library which the New York Public Library is establishing.

One metropolitan cooperative enterprise at a higher level which began bravely and constructively and did good things endured for only two years. Helen-Jean Moore reports the establishment, in 1947, by five higher educational institutions in Pittsburgh of a Committee on Coordination of Libraries.⁶ These five institutions are located within a half-hour drive of each other. They had, in 1962, an enrollment of 19,000 undergraduates and aggregate book holdings of 1,355,000 volumes. The Committee was active in establishing mutual borrowing privileges for students, liberalizing inter-library loans, making resources mutually available during vacations and in sponsoring continuance of a successful Union List of Serials. Under the pressures of expanding curricula and changing institutional directions, plans to delimit subject areas of acquisition did not endure. In 1948, under the rapidly changing situation, the Committee went out of existence. It should, Miss Moore believes, be reactivated. As in so many enterprises of this kind money, and the most precious commodities of all, time and initiative, have been lacking for full

capitalization and continuance of the original efforts. This languishing from brave beginnings is a story which has been repeated in numerous places in America.

Another promising example of cooperation with many implications for libraries is the recent establishment in Washington, D. C., by American University, George Washington University, Howard University, Catholic University of America and Georgetown University, of a joint Graduate Consortium.⁷ Under it graduate students of any one university may take courses and use the library facilities of all five institutions. Each university will retain autonomy at the graduate level. This is, if not a change in institutional directions, certainly a sensible cooperative effort to permit each institution better to attain its established goals.

Cooperative plans and programs of many kinds among higher educational institutions, all with library implications, could be identified in every part of the country. It seems sure that under the great surge of enrollment and increasing research and the certainty now of generous Federal funds many of the existing programs will be reinvigorated and new ones developed. It will be natural for many of these programs to head up in metropolitan areas. The academic librarians of our country at all levels, and in all places, need to be not only alert to these possibilities but also aggressive in bending them to the improvement of their libraries.

I fully expect the smaller undergraduate colleges of our country and their libraries to be substantially improved and upgraded in the years immediately ahead. This may well take place along pleasant and acceptable lines not significantly different from the present patterns. When we turn to library support of the tremendous research effort now going in our major universities and elsewhere, the handwriting on the wall indicates prospects for change which individual institutions and individual librarians may find neither inviting nor pleasant.

An attractive will-o'-the-wisp which academic librarians of the advanced institutions have eagerly sought to grasp over the years, with only limited success, is to have within their walls and on their shelves all the books their advanced students, faculty and researchers need. This philosophy, or desire, or ambition was, in 1963, given voice by J.N.L. Myres, President of the British Library Association and Bodley Librarian in this way.⁸

A great deal of nonsense, and dangerous nonsense, can be heard nowadays about the wastefulness of duplication and overlapping in the expenditure of book funds. It is of far greater importance that the right book should always be available when and where it is wanted than that a few pounds should be saved in order that it shall only be available in one place. It is of the utmost importance

that those who hold the purse strings . . . should not be deluded into supposing, from misguided notions of economy, that a university library can be created on any other principle than the physical possession, within its own walls, of its own copies of everything, old and new, which its members require for the promotion of their studies or the advancement of learning . . . any acceptance of compromise, however plausible on the grounds of economy, rational planning, saving of shelf space, or any other specious consideration, will be fatal to the ultimate achievement of the purpose in view.

I am convinced that the days when such ambitions can be realized, Mr. Myres and numerous other academic librarians to the contrary notwithstanding, are gone forever. They never have been here really, as witness the brisk inter-library loan transactions among even our greatest libraries.

From the University of California at Los Angeles comes another prestigious voice, that of Robert Vosper, along related lines.⁹ In his 1963-64 Annual Report, Mr. Vosper says, and with this I think no one will argue, that a "war on research library poverty" is needed. There has, he thinks, been a lot of "dangerous nonsense" bruited about recently concerning the expanding cost and size of research libraries. He maintains that some "near-hysterical" steps have been taken to inhibit library space and costs "all to the likely detriment of scholarship." Mr. Vosper, perhaps as a local telling observation, further observes that the cost of maintaining and developing research libraries does not approach the cost of medical education.

The implication of both the Myres and the Vosper statements is that there are no problems in research libraries that money will not solve. If the librarians of the advanced academic institution can only have enough dollars, or pounds, they can solve everything, for the most part right on their own campuses. Money will, of course help. Without it, and in generous quantity, we will have, and soon, chaos in control of the world's voluminous literature. The help and the solutions however will be along lines which neither Mr. Myres nor Mr. Vosper, nor, I suspect, most of us here, will welcome.

The days of individual empire building in which a single library can aspire to have physical possession, "within its own walls, of its own copies of everything, old and new, which its members require for promotion of their studies or the advancement of learning" these days, I emphasize once again, are gone forever. And with them, I suspect, goes the Eden of at least some of us old-school academic librarians.

This audience certainly does not need to have the facts of the tremendous explosion of knowledge paraded before it. All of us have been struggling with this outstanding phenomenon of the twentieth

century to the extent our means and our wit permit. It may be helpful, nevertheless, to think a bit about the explosion, and to cogitate about whether it will result eventually in a fall-out of bibliographical debris and dust or an ordered and disciplined control similar to that of the atomic reactors. I have no personal fears that controls will not be maintained, but clearly this will not be on the basis of any individual library or even limited groups of libraries such as, for instance, the Association of Research Libraries.

There has been some fun poked at Fremont Rider's estimates of some years ago that the catalog of the Yale Library would, of and by itself, eventually require eight acres of space.¹⁰ This estimate no doubt is classified as "dangerous nonsense" by some people. The fact remains, nevertheless, that the Yale Catalog, if maintained in traditional ways, as Mr. Rider assumed, would eventually need eight acres of space. Not only this, if Mr. Rider were around now to base new estimates on current growth rates and increases, he would arrive at even more acres.

Devouring of space by our libraries continues to be appalling to a country boy such as I am, who first knew a little rural school library of forty books. Even these, speaking of poverty, were bought with the proceeds of a "box social," an ante-diluvian means of raising money unfamiliar, I am certain, to the younger people here. I shall probably never be hardened enough, or shell-shocked enough, or whatever it takes, not to be impressed not only by the physical space required by our libraries but also the rising curve of it.

Mr. Vosper's lucid and readable annual report of 1963-64 referred to above, has these facts on library space consumption on his own campus: A new University Research Library occupied in the summer of 1964 even as plans were begun for a second unit, with a third and final unit to be undertaken in four years; completion of a three-stage remodeling of the old library into an undergraduate library; a doubling in size of the Bio-Medical Library in progress; new space for the Geology Library arranged; the Physics Library enlarged; more space for the Map Library; expansion of the Art Library underway; planning of new space for the Law Library, the University Elementary School Library, the Education-Psychology Library. All this space increase reported in a single annual report of a single university library. There cannot, one must believe, be much library poverty at UCLA.

Time was when a single library building erected within the professional career of an academic librarian was achievement enough. Those days too are gone, probably forever. It is a safe assumption that the new space created and in progress at UCLA in 1963-64 will not long suffice. It very likely will not see Bob Vosper comfortably through his years in the service of that university.

We could go to the campus of any major university to find similar logistics of space consumption. One place where on-going developments have impressed me is the University of Minnesota. There Ned Stanford records, in his smoothly flowing report of 1964-65, the planning and beginning of construction of a \$9,866,666 West Bank Library with space for 2,000,000 volumes and 2,700 readers.¹¹ This building augments, rather than replaces the Walter Library, not too many years ago the envy of many universities. But as at UCLA the University cannot rest, even momentarily, on the creation of a magnificent new building. It must, says Mr. Stanford, immediately be about the business of planning new facilities for the Engineering Library and an addition to the Agriculture Library to serve the expanded student body and new programs.

Buildings are, of course, only one of the consumers of library dollars and, over the years, not the major one. Mr. Stanford reports, with obvious and natural satisfaction an increase, in 1964-65, of \$260,000 in the annual book budget of his Library. We do not have to go back very far in the statistics of our libraries to reach the time when this quarter of a million dollars increase would equal the total acquisitional budget of even our largest universities.

The facts of accumulating and organizing the words and ideas of man into libraries lead inescapably to only one conclusion. The quantity is now so great that no library, not even a national library, can hope to encompass it all, and still remain an efficient, easily functioning, useful library. Even the most ardent bibliophile must, I would think, admit this. There is only one direction our libraries can go and that is toward sharing the burden. If the machine can significantly help in this, and the prospects seem to be improving, this will be a fact of life of our technological age, hopefully a pleasant fact.

Nor are our academic libraries unprepared for this. There have been, as we all know, extensive cooperative programs among us for most of this century, in preparing of union lists, organizing bibliographical centers, promoting the publication of the catalogs of some of the great libraries, and arranging regional depositories. One can surmise that there will necessarily be an intensification of such programs, much along established lines, culminating eventually in great regional reservoirs of less used materials micro-reduced and available for quick transmission and/or print-out for subscribing libraries. The difference between what we do now and will need to do in the future in the service of graduate programs and research may be that individual libraries will, less and less, emphasize and seek completeness, and rely more and more on the regional or national resources. In doing they will be more efficient and helpful in support of the scholarly processes. The price they will pay, and

it will from some viewpoints be high, will be a lessening of their individual prestige.

The most interesting and rewarding professional reading I have done over the years has been the annual reports of other academic librarians. These accountings, written for local administrators and faculty, have a directness and difference of tone, and quite often an urgency and frankness which we do not find in the professional journals.

There are in the reports of university librarians everywhere, I have felt, two universal themes characteristic of our times, of not enough and too much. The not enough predominates. Not enough staff, space, books, even in some instances not enough use, all in varying ways arriving at the same common denominator, not enough money. I have yet to read a report from any library where enough of any of the above has been admitted, or where the librarian has been content with what he has.

The too much in library reports, sometimes only implicit, is inextricably intertwined with the not enough. It is in fact a part of it. Too many books owned or recently acquired to be properly housed in existing space, too many students for available seating space, too many faculty members to be serviced by existing staff, too many good books being published or long since published, which cannot be acquired with available funds. More, more, more, and the need always for more, in continuing refrain, and muted but inescapable, too much, too much—these Siamese twins are found in the reports of academic librarians from everywhere.

Every librarian comments, usually with satisfaction, on the progress which has been made during the year. Nearly always this has been significant, and with increasing frequency it has been tremendous as in the UCLA and Minnesota reports above. Always it has been in response to institutional directions and commitments, often new. Entire new schools, new departments, new graduate majors, new branches of the university, these signs of changing institutional direction shine through the reports of university librarians, both in metropolis and out, almost universally and with increasing frequency.

There is one element or factor in our meticulous and, on the whole, highly successful management of knowledge which is now almost entirely missing from the literature but which will, I believe, receive increasing attention in the years ahead, perhaps in the immediate future. This will be the meaning of it all, the impact, value, and, yes, the desirability of all the knowledge we so carefully accumulate, organize, and make available mile upon mile.

There has of course been talk of too many books from the time of Ecclesiastes on. Voltaire maintained that books are making us ignorant, and so they are in relation to the amount of knowledge they contain which can be encompassed by a single mind. Washington

Irving trembled for posterity in the rising flood of print. Garrett Hardin in his fanciful piece, "The Last Canute" foresaw the complete suffocation of Man in his intellectual excreta.¹² Most of these and similar reactions have perhaps been only half-serious, if that.

The time is fast approaching, however, when we need to become dead serious about this business of too many books and too much knowledge. Harold Gores, who is in the business of giving away Foundation money has recently said that the current output of printed materials is becoming unmanageable.¹³ Referring to 60 million pages of technical reports being published annually he says that "some form of birth control for the storage of knowledge is required." When we multiply what is happening now in publication rates in a single year by decades and centuries, particularly the far centuries, it seems clear that Mr. Gores is right.

More important than the physical aspects of accumulating, organizing, and housing the world's knowledge, are the intellectual implications, a facet almost totally overlooked by librarians and machine enthusiasts in our struggles to keep abreast of the surging flood. William Birenbaum, cited at the beginning of this paper, comments on this in this way, "As the sheer bulk of what is known doubles with each decade, it is increasingly difficult to distill droplets of human wisdom from the swelling sea of human knowledge."¹⁴ This, says Birenbaum, threatens to do what the growth of population is doing to the cities of man. One, he thinks, results in slums and a congestion which stunts human life, the other debilitates the mind and spirit. I cannot agree that this needs to be so in either instance but it deserves pondering.

It is my belief that Yale's euphemistically titled, "Selective Retirement" of books is one of the most significant of the many excellent programs recently undertaken under the stimulus of Council on Library Resources dollars. Here, in this program, we have a harbinger of things to come, the kinds of things which will be essential to keep the world's store of knowledge manageable. It is entirely possible, and I say this seriously, that future academic librarians will report to their administrative authorities, with the same sense of accomplishment we now report additions, the hundreds of thousands of books they have been able to throw away in a given year. If this indeed happens it will require an order of intelligence and of wisdom not now among us.

I will comment on only one additional factor in the changing academic scene, and its implications for our libraries. Immediately after World War II, college and university students were criticised for their apathy about affairs and developments on campus, nationally, and throughout the world. They were accused, these postwar students, of being interested only in security for themselves and their families.

It is quite understandable that a generation which had just fought a bloody war should seek security above all other goods. Indeed a preponderance of the students on our campuses and in our libraries in those days of revival of national strength and spirit had personally done the fighting and killing. Small wonder that they should look forward to sitting secure and content before their own fireplaces.

Now, as we all know, the pendulum has swung to the far left. Student discontent, accompanied by demonstrations, and sometimes riots, has been widely spread among our universities and colleges, in metropolis and out. While the most dramatic events have centered on the academic giant of the West Coast, the University of California at Berkeley, there has been student unease and a "mood of rebellion" in many places, places as widely spread and diverse as Yale, Brooklyn College, the University of Kansas, Sarah Lawrence College, St. John's University and Alabama State College in Montgomery.

A survey conducted by Editorial Projects for Education found the student unrest to center around these things: bigness and impersonality of many academic institutions; excessive paternalism at some colleges, indifference at others; faculty neglect of undergraduate teaching "especially on campuses where research is emphasized and publication of results is a condition of faculty advancement"; academic pressures and preoccupation with grades; growing mobility of faculty and students with a loss of institutional loyalty; the "take-over mentality" of some students who feel a growing sense of power; a need to take part in some kind of community action; failure of many colleges to "establish a dialogue with the students."¹⁵

Running through all the unrest, said Editorial Projects, was discontent with college teaching and the tendency for the undergraduate to become the forgotten man in universities increasingly involved with research, and extensive preoccupation of faculty members with off-campus consulting services. This may or may not be the source of student discontent at Berkeley where unrest has been most acute. It is significant though, that most, if not all, the above factors are spectacularly in evidence there.

There are lessons for all our libraries in all of this. It is indeed easy for the undergraduate to be lost and neglected in a predominantly research library. The undergraduate libraries which have come on the scene at a good many large universities are a step, long overdue, toward answering the special library needs of the undergraduate. More such libraries are needed, and quickly.

Over and beyond this all our libraries can and should do much more to make their services to all their users and particularly to their undergraduates, friendly, courteous, concerned and outgoing. This, the warmly human element, is, I strongly feel, far more

important than having all the books on every subject within our walls. Our services and the general tone and atmosphere of our libraries should be of the kind which some years ago called forth the following statement from an alumna writing to her University Librarian: "remembering always the beloved Library where alone, on all the campus, I was entirely happy."

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INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN METROPOLITAN AREAS - THE LIBRARY ENVIRONMENT

George L. Royer

I cannot consider myself an information services specialist, but on the other hand, I cannot deny that I have been associated with the field. From my early days as a working scientist, I have always considered the literature and, therefore, the services supplied by the library to be a very important part of a scientist's professional "tool chest." The scientist cannot truly be creative in any field unless he is knowledgeable about what has gone before, so that he can build on this information and create new ideas and programs. If he does not know the field, he may think that ideas and products which are uncovered by him are brand new, and he will therefore be sadly disappointed when he expresses them as new creations only to find out that the experts in the field have known them all along.

The research laboratory in most companies has grown out of the technical operation. In the chemical industry with which I am best acquainted, the technical activities centered on the production, control and testing of the products being manufactured. In many cases, this know-how was brought to this country from Europe where, most specifically, organic chemical manufacture had started prior to the first World War. After 1918 there was a rapid development in the synthetic chemical industry, and it was at this point that many of our earlier research laboratories were established. During the last forty years there has been a marked increase in research activities and many of our current industries have developed as a result. The first research laboratory was located at the manufacturing plant but its activities gradually became separated from the manufacturing operation. In this separate environment, research scientists were able to develop new products and processes which justified the research expenditures. Before World War II, research had progressed to the point where many of the larger organizations felt that it was desirable to form separate central research laboratories where scientists could devote their time to new products and new areas separate from their current fields of endeavor. Laboratories like that of Cyanamid at Stamford were established completely independent of a manufacturing location. In seeking a site for such a centralized laboratory, locations were investigated which were either close to the corporate

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office in a metropolitan area, close to a university, or both. During and after the second World War, there was an additional desire on the part of many large companies to expand their research activities into products related to government activities and also to expand in activities which had come out of work for the government. The laboratories developed mostly around the university or around research centers. Typical of the developments around a university are the laboratories which have been built in the Stanford and Princeton areas and those of the Harvard - MIT complex known as the Route 128 area. Within the last five to ten years, many states have felt they have lost out by not encouraging research to come to their areas and have established research centers. As a result of all this, we now have concentrations of research laboratories around many of our major metropolitan areas. These research activities look to their local area to furnish them adequate library facilities. This is in addition to a community environment which gives satisfactory living conditions for the type of employee being sought, namely, the professional and technical person. The metropolitan library, therefore, must furnish adequate facilities for the professional person to use in his work and also supply him with the library facilities he needs for his own personal and family use. In the New York area, we have been fortunate in having the outstanding New York Public Library as a source. In addition, in specialized fields we have such libraries as The Chemists Club Library, The Engineering Societies Library, and the New York Academy of Medicine Library.

From my viewpoint as a research administrator, I can see the need for better information services and want to report to you some of the developments leading to this goal in our Stamford Research Laboratories, the American Cyanamid Company, the City of Stamford, the State of Connecticut, the New York area, and in the United States as a whole.

Research is big business. I am not going to repeat statistics on its growth during the past few years since the government has become so involved because I know you have read a great deal on the subject. In addition to locating scientific information which has been developed over the years, we must look forward to how we will handle the great quantity of information, both governmental and private, which will be coming out as a result of these large research expenditures. While there will be direct benefits in the form of products and accomplishments as a result of this research, we must be concerned with the indirect information, or fall-out as it is often called, which can be used to advance our knowledge in the same or related fields. Because of the tremendous size and ramifications of current research programs, it has been necessary to specialize so that the individual and groups of individuals can grasp an understanding of a segment and apply it for a fruitful conclusion. In such specialization, there is a

tendency to ignore some of the fundamental developments in other fields. As a result of this, there may be less use of broader concepts which could lead to truly new discoveries and entirely unexpected products. Information services must create techniques which will make possible considerable depth studies which will satisfy the specialist, and at the same time keep the systems broad enough to include enough depth on broad areas of science. For example, we have medical libraries which maintain information services in all medical areas and in more depth as the information relates to the functions of the human being. At the same time, special chemical libraries go into considerable depth in regard to all phases of chemistry. This is likewise true in biology, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, etc. I do not want to get into a discussion of techniques of which I know very little, but, rather I would like to keep all of you focused on the problems which we face in industry and government, because of the ramifications and costs which might develop in the information services field if some attempt is not made to correlate them.

In the individual research laboratory, it is desirable to have as large a working library as is possible to cover the immediate needs of the research organization. As the laboratory grows in size, the library must also grow if it is to meet the needs of the various professional people who are hired to carry out the research work. At all times it must be the responsibility of the librarian to supervise the requests of the staff and determine when it is most economical to have the source material in house and when to go to another collection.

I will describe some of the techniques which we have used to guide us at Cyanamid. We have four major research locations, each of which has an information services staff to aid the researchers at their location. Each of them has a budget which is established by their local management to cover the areas of specialization at their location. From the over-all corporate point of view, there is an information services committee composed of representatives from each of the four major locations which meets quarterly to coordinate and report on information practices which might concern all locations. In addition, this committee sponsors an annual meeting attended by the majority of the library personnel of the company, at which time outside specialists present papers on areas of interest. Thus, an attempt is made through the individuals concerned to maintain relationships which can help serve each other, and do so at the lowest corporate cost.

The City of Stamford, Connecticut, has been designated by its government to be "The Research City" because of the number of research laboratories located there. In order to have a good environment for research, our managements know that we must have good

public library facilities, good educational facilities, and good living conditions for professional personnel in addition to the libraries established by our specific industries. Therefore, several years ago, the Management Council of Southwestern Connecticut sponsored a Library Group consisting of the staff of the various libraries in the area, not only business and industrial libraries, but also public and at least two academic libraries. This group has been meeting regularly and has established relationships for the exchange of their own collections and helped to create, at the Stamford public library, a central means for the duplication and distribution of material of interest to all members. An article in Connecticut Industry (July 1965, p. 35) describes this group and two of its major projects. First is the preparing of a title list of periodicals in alphabetical order for the use of member companies. The second project is the purchase of microfilms of major journals and periodicals not now available in member company collections. By this cooperative effort, library costs of individual organizations can be minimized and quicker service can be obtained than from sources in New York.

Several years ago, Governor Dempsey of Connecticut realized the importance of research to the future economy of Connecticut. He established committees to study research and library facilities. The legislature now has authorized a Connecticut Research Commission which has funds and a staff to advance research activities within the State. Walter Brahm, our State Librarian, made the following statement concerning the Connecticut Library facilities: "Connecticut's approach to the solution of its library problems, particularly in the science-information area, may have special meaning for industry's top management as well as for metropolitan librarians. The 1965 General Assembly, in legislation reorganizing library service at the State level, specifically instructed the State Library Committee to plan a research center. The Library Committee has established a department of planning, headed by a librarian with many years of experience in the science information field. What kind of library 'research center' evolves from this planning remains to be seen but the approach perhaps is unique among the States."

With these steps being taken, the State of Connecticut should be ready to accept the provisions of the State Technical Services Act of 1965 recently passed by Congress. The preamble states that this Act provides funds to states which can match them with state funds "To promote commerce and encourage economic growth by supporting State and interstate programs to place the findings of science usefully in the hands of American enterprise."

As mentioned earlier, in the metropolitan New York area, research personnel are fortunate in having the New York Public Library. During my own scientific career I used it on many occasions. Cyanamid's libraries have also used its excellent collections for

photostat service. In my own field of chemistry, the Chemists Club Library provides a more intimate service and easier access to the stacks. The Library Committee of the Club, whose members are mostly chemical company executives, has for a number of years organized annual symposia to discuss not library techniques, but relationships between the library and other parts of the company such as research, sales, market research, etc. These symposia offer the opportunity for the librarian and management to exchange ideas to advance the usefulness of information services. The participating research laboratories of the metropolitan New York area thus benefit from this cooperative activity.

D. A. Schon, Director of the Institute of Applied Technology, Department of Commerce, and William T. Knox of the Office of Science Technology of the Executive Department, held a conference with industry representatives in Washington on June 18, 1965, to discuss matters of scientific and technical information. In the Federal Government, interest in technical information has been the concern of Congress, an interest expressed often by former Senator Humphrey, Senator McClellan, and Representatives Elliott, Daddario, and others. In the Executive Office of the President, several actions have been taken: (1) the establishment of a Committee on Scientific and Technical Information (COSATI), (2) the establishment of a staff member of the Office of Science and Technology for scientific and technical information, (3) the creation of the NASA regional technology transfer centers, and (4) the creation of the Department of Commerce Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information. Congress and many panels of the executive branch have emphasized the need to study national (as opposed to Federal) scientific and technical documentation and information systems, and to work out appropriate public-private division of responsibilities in the design of such systems.

The Task Group of COSATI is addressing itself to questions that include the following:

- Division of responsibility between industry, government and the professional societies.
- Federal support of non-federal activities.
- Legislative requirements, if the role of national libraries is to be expanded.
- Costs of information services, in relation to benefits.
- New technologies in information handling, and policy questions raised (e.g., copyright).
- Standards and compatibility.

The COSATI group is now awaiting a report from a consulting organization which has been contracted to make a preliminary study. It has also promised to report back and continue to work with various

professional, scientific, and industrial representatives in order to bring government and industry together to discuss issues of importance to both.

These efforts being made toward the solution of information problems on company, city, state, and national level, must be carried out with understanding from the viewpoint of the professional librarian, the federal and state government, and industrial management. The profit nature of industry and the society responsibility of government both must be kept in mind by the information specialist if his advice and recommendations are truly professional. We must not build a system for the sake of building the best possible system. We must build what is needed today to solve our problems at a reasonable price. This does not mean that we should not look forward to tomorrow. This is research, and what we build today must be the foundation of what is to come. As an example, I always think of our telephone system—the hand-cranked, many-party, rural phone must be able to be connected by proper equipment to the latest electronic pushbutton phone in the most modern telephone exchange. In the future information system, the individual scientist must be able to relate to the most recent scientific discoveries and also to those of the past.

All this coordination and development of information services is of no value if the results are not used by research management or the research scientist. Maybe you as librarians think you are not concerned with this as long as you do your part and make the services available. I know this is not true because you are just as anxious to make your contributions needed as we in research management are to have our efforts succeed in making the research scientist more effective by his working together with the information specialist. We both have the same problem of effective motivation of the scientist by the proper use of information. I agree with a recent statement by J. M. Leathers, who said in Chemical Engineering Progress (July 1965, p. 28), "I feel that the problem of early mental retirement by professional people in large organizations will become an increasing problem, and will continue to do so until upper management recognizes that individuals, and not systems or organizations, make projects tick."

In the information area we must reach the individual scientist. Library and technical information service is one important factor in preventing him from becoming obsolete. We are not satisfied with the use our scientists make of our information services. We find our better scientists in the library area frequently, correlating their experimental work with that published by others. The poorer ones, who need information most, do not seem to recognize their needs and frequent the library very little. William T. Knox, in a talk at a joint meeting of the American Documentation Institute, American Medical Writers Association, Society of Technical Writers and Publishers,

and Special Libraries Association on March 15, 1965, stated that our big problem is, "creating in the mind of the consumer the idea that use of information services ranks among the most desirable, the most valuable functions of the professional man. Frankly, there are few scientists and engineers who share this view today. The 'image' of the user of information services, and of those providing information services is not one calculated to attract others. This is true although the average professional man values highly a good book or journal article. In my opinion, he doesn't normally extend his value judgment about a specific information service, such as a good book, to the broad spectrum of information services. The training most scientists and engineers receive emphasizes experimentation, and sometimes explicitly, sometimes implicitly downgrades the value of using the literature." If this is a big problem, and I believe it is, then the information specialist and management should get together and help solve it.

In closing, may I say that casual users of the library are not aware of the problems of the information explosion and the need to make effective use of existing knowledge. A recent issue of Time (September 3, 1965, pp. 52,57) brings out various aspects of the problem as it applies to the public library, school, college, industry and government. It describes some of the current ideas being tried and projected to solve some of the problems, and concludes with a significant statement by Jesse Mills of the University of Pennsylvania: "All the money in the world isn't going to get a computer to judge what is worth storing and what is not." This judgment will continue to be more valuable than any technical breakthrough and emphasizes the importance of the professional ability of the librarian.

SPECIAL LIBRARIES, THEIR SUPPORTING INSTITUTIONS, AND METROPOLITAN PROBLEMS

Bill M. Woods

Not long ago Ervin J. Gaines¹ took Ralph Blasingame² to task over an implicit assumption in an article he had written, an assumption which made everything seem so simple: that reading is vital to life, and if the idea were projected further, that libraries are vital to reading. Gaines went on, "True, it may be vital to the middle class, but is it vital to a migrant farm worker?"

Many persons and groups in our twentieth century society see little need for easy access to organized collections of books. Few citizens, though, would argue against libraries unless they are compelled to place them in priority with other public services such as highways, police protection, schools, or sewage treatment. Government officials and school and college administrators, too, are unpredictable as to their reaction to libraries.

What then of the Special Library, that poorly defined type of library which came into being without the security of citizen education and service? It is heartening to hear of enlightened administrators in corporations, government agencies, hospitals, museums, and similar institutions who understand and appreciate what a library can do for them, or why a library should be considered for their own organization.

How often, though, are there reports of special libraries passing out of existence and how rare an occurrence is this in the college, school, and public library world? Not unusual is a letter such as one dated Monday, July 26, 1965: "Last Friday . . . management informed me that the Research Library was immediately discontinued in connection with drastic reduction of all Research activities."

Numerous companies, banks, and newspapers do without libraries and few stockholders question whether this may be the reason the stock is slow or the profits low. In fact, if companies ranked in the Fortune Directory of 500 Largest Industrial Corporations or in one of the 50 "Largest" lists were surveyed, it might be discovered that many of the top income corporations do well without libraries. Kruzas³ did find when he checked that the 30 largest industrial firms in 1963 supported a total of 310 special libraries for an average of ten each, and General Electric had 47 special libraries.

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The universe of special libraries in metropolitan areas needs to be explored; some problems peculiar to all special libraries and some uniquely significant to the urban special library need to be examined; and the role of the special library in cooperative ventures needs to be determined.

What is the relationship between the metropolitan area and the special library? Dr. Royer has described the research laboratory—a principal parent of the special library. Some laboratories are located in the city but many in recent years have been established in nearby suburban areas. Most prominent in the metropolitan environment are advertising agencies, consulting firms, government agencies, banks, hospitals, investment houses, insurance companies, museums, newspapers, publishing firms, and trade and professional associations. Very few have yet moved to the suburbs. Although special subject departments of public libraries and departmental and professional school libraries of universities also qualify as special libraries and exist in large numbers, they have been discussed elsewhere and are excluded from most of the present discussion.

The 1963 Directory of Special Libraries and Information Centers,⁴ compiled by Anthony T. Kruzas, was carefully analyzed statistically by Dr. Kruzas and the results released in 1965³. The Directory reports on a total of 8,533 special libraries and specialized collections in the United States and its possessions. (The total number of entries is over 10,000 including 661 Canadian special libraries plus various U.S. depository libraries.) More than one-half of these 8,533 libraries, or 4,763 (56 percent) are located in six heavily populated states (California, Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania) and the District of Columbia. New York State with 17.8 percent has twice as many as the second ranking state, California, with 8.5 percent. The New York metropolitan area alone contains all but 1.9 percent of the State's total, or 15.9 percent, and more than in the states ranking number two and three (California and Ohio).

The 1963 edition of Special Libraries Directory of Greater New York describes 1,053 libraries, 200 more than in the previous edition. Although the directory contains fewer entries than the 1,364 listed by Kruzas for New York City, it does include extensive entries for departmental collections in college and public libraries. The classification by type is indicative of the scope of special libraries in one large metropolitan center:

Advertising and Public Relations	66	International Relations and Information	41
Banking and Finance	42	Law	56
Business and Economics	80	Medicine and Health	114
Chemical Industry	46	Newspapers	16

Clubs and Associations	16	Petroleum	14
Colleges and Universities	48	Pharmacy	19
Communications	15	Public Administration	10
Education	25	Publishing	35
Engineering	57	Recreation	7
Fine and Applied Arts	43	Religion	43
Geography and Map	9	Science	41
History and Genealogy	39	Social Science	40
Industrial Relations	10	Technology	68
Insurance	19	Transportation	12

Nine Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas studied by Kruzas—New York City, Baltimore and Washington, D. C., Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Detroit—contain 3,768 special libraries and specialized collections, or 44.2 percent of the country's total. The remaining 4,765 libraries (55.8 percent) are scattered in all other parts of the country. Ranking high in the number of special libraries are six other states with large urban populations—New Jersey, Michigan, Texas, Missouri, Connecticut, and Indiana. These states account for 16.7 percent of the total.

Of the 3,768 special libraries in the nine metropolitan areas mentioned above, 1,213 are company libraries or 56.1 percent of all company libraries in the United States. The importance of the metropolitan area and of these nine, in particular, is illustrated by figures for other types of special libraries.

	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percentage of U.S. Total by Type</u>
Company	1,213	56.1
Government Agency	466	38.2
Other Non-Profit Organizations	1,231	48.1
Public Library Departments	170	44.0
College and University Departments	688	31.2

In the first three categories, the special libraries within the scope of this discussion, Kruzas has identified 2,910 or 34 percent of the total number in the United States. Efforts of Robert J. Havlik of the U.S. Office of Education and those by Kruzas for a second edition of his directory, have produced evidence of hundreds of additional libraries previously unlisted.

Resources of special libraries are often underestimated. Collection information is available for 6,468 of the 8,533 libraries surveyed by Kruzas. These 6,468 libraries contain 181,692,706 volumes, and 4,881 of these libraries receive 1,349,914 journal subscriptions. In 2,187 libraries maintained by companies, government agencies,

and non-profit organizations in the nine metropolitan areas, resources are 54,681,851 volumes, while 1,605 libraries receive 382,660 journal subscriptions. The 947 company libraries of this group of 2,187, house 10,341,338 volumes, and 748 libraries receive 161,587 journal subscriptions. Figures for 327 government agency libraries, including such giants as the Library of Congress, National Agricultural Library, and National Library of Medicine are 25,491,305 volumes, with 110,744 journal subscriptions in 245 libraries. The private non-profit category of 913 libraries shelve 18,849,208 volumes while 612 of them receive 110,329 journals on subscription. These resources are impressive and deserve attention beyond the scope of this paper. (See Appendices I and II.)

A couple of years ago the Georgia Chapter of Special Libraries Association surveyed⁵ special libraries in the South to determine their critical needs. Although a number of matters concerned the southern special librarians, such as lack of clerical staff which ran a close second, the lack of space headed the list. This same lack of space and the problems it creates would likely top lists in New York, Chicago, Los Angeles, or elsewhere.

Managements, in their search for an administrative solution to the shortage of space and its high rental value, use what has become a reasonably common practice—that of assessing all functions, including the library, an overhead charge for the space occupied by personnel, materials, and equipment, and for other general services such as heat, light, air conditioning, cleaning, redecoration, telephone, mail, and the like. Such overhead charges are invariably built into government contract operations, and they are also common to many special libraries. Recently one special librarian expressed concern that her book and journal budget about equals what the company charges against her budget for space. Such overhead figures may well seem out of proportion to the total costs for library service as a special library, unlike similar company functions with which it may be compared, occupies more space than the number of employees suggests. The lopsided ratio seems often to generate a reluctance on the part of managements to provide choice or desirable space. Mobility of librarians from position to position has been studied, yet mobility of libraries is an unresearched topic. Special libraries are constantly being moved in management's attempt to make the most efficient use of space. One librarian reported a move of her library in each of the five years she had been on the job; most of the moves had resulted in a decrease in the space available to a growing library service.

Special librarians long ago decided against bearing the cost of storing and maintaining large files of non-current material. One obvious factor considered in arriving at this decision was the high cost of space, another the emphasis on up-to-date and highly

relevant material only, and finally the accessibility of other library resources. A direct relationship between the size of a special library and its distance from a major library resource seems to exist. Growth of a special library in the city may deliberately be restricted because of nearby large public and university libraries and other special libraries to which it has access. The suburban special library, on the other hand, is a larger library, while the special library removed from the city is to a much larger degree self-sustaining.

Late editions only of most reference books and monographs are kept. Files of pamphlets and clippings are weeded regularly according to systematic and well-thought out plans. Even in historical research libraries such as the Council on Foreign Relations in New York, because the shelves and files are sprawling out in all directions, it is necessary to have a rigid program for microfilming of clippings for earlier years. Metropolitan newspapers such as the New York Times have been in the forefront with programs for reducing from paper to microstorage valuable clipping files.

Kruzas⁶ reports the experience in file reduction by the Prudential Insurance Company in Newark. The first company library was a private statistical library acquired along with a Statistical Vice-President in 1895. Additional and other specialized needs resulted in formation of a popular reading library in 1915, a Bond Department Library in 1920, a law library of 20,000 volumes, and a medical library which, with its 50,000 volumes was estimated to hold 90 per cent of the world's public health material. What began to happen in 1922 illustrates a typical corporate attitude, the unwillingness of even the largest firms to pay the cost of storing and maintaining files of non-current material. The medical collection was donated to the U.S. Surgeon General's Library, the economics materials went to Princeton, agriculture and forestry to Yale, geology and geography to Wellesley, labor and industry to Babson Institute, and mining and engineering to Lehigh.

Journals are a principal resource of the special library. Their retention period may vary from a complete run to keeping only the current issue. By establishing cooperative agreements with other libraries and by depending on large research libraries for infrequently used items, realistic retention policies, in relationship to space, have become possible. An advertising agency library, for example, may keep only six months or a year of many journals. Others may be clipped and pertinent text and advertisements indexed and put in a subject file. Large technical libraries, too, are likely to keep permanently only those journals of proven value to their users. Abstracting and indexing publications provide reference to other titles which can be borrowed or acquired in photocopy from a large storage library. Cooperative purchase on microfilm of journals not otherwise available in an area is another current cooperative practice.

Large research libraries have encouraged use by special libraries. Some have established a reference and research service available on a fee basis. In some areas the lack of good public library service is readily apparent. In other communities the public library is alert to its obligations and aggressive in providing service to the business and industrial community. Detroit has suffered a tax imbalance by the move to suburban areas of many industrial users whose tax dollar formerly supported its public Library. Special "company cards" have been issued to facilitate continued use and support by industry. An acceleration in the move of special libraries to suburban areas will create problems for the public library in other cities. Use of the New York Public Library's privately supported Reference Department by special library interests is heavy. The Library seeks business and industrial contributions in regular solicitations. In Buffalo, some industries have contributed support enabling the public library to purchase expensive reference sets; yet one special librarian in that area reported privately that his company felt their tax dollar was sufficient support.

Another special librarian reports her company to be an annual contributor of \$10,000 to a nearby private technical university. Library resources of this university are unimpressive. The special librarian, on the other hand, uses the engineering library of a nearby state university as a principal auxiliary resource, yet has been unable to get an extra penny for tribute to the tax-supported library.

At some point the demand for service by the special library is likely to surpass that which the larger library will be able to provide and still meet its regular needs. Special library service is an in-depth service, producing the answer not the source of the answer, making heavy use of foreign language materials, and requiring expensive reference items. The large library with its greater resources, may soon regret the success of its program of promotion to business and industry. The Newark Public Library encourages any and all users both within and without the taxing district to use their collections. The Brooklyn Business Library may reach the day when it must refuse service to the same Wall Street special libraries which have been encouraged to cross the East River for library service. The acknowledgement of an unrealistic responsibility to industrial users in her town was expressed publicly a few years ago by one Long Island librarian. She did not then have the required resources. Fortunately she now has the back-up support of a county library system which also has been courting the industrial user.

Procurement of qualified personnel seems always to be a problem regardless of location. Actually the characteristics and preferences of the available professional labor supply create and compound the problem. An oversupply of professionals, often but not necessarily unmarried, is attracted to New York and San Francisco.

They are determined to work only in the city, will work for less money in order to stay in town, and are not interested in New Jersey or Monterey Peninsula openings. Preferences of some librarians for "glamour" industries—advertising, art, communications, publishing—often result in unglamorous salaries and duties.

Particularly frustrating to placement and personnel officers is what has been called in New York the "Third Avenue Syndrome," characterized by otherwise qualified persons whose geographical limits for a position lie between 68th Street on the north, 38th Street on the South, Sixth Avenue on the west, and Third Avenue on the east. That is, the east side of 6th and the west side of 3rd! A few years ago the principal requirements of one special librarian upon leaving a chemical research library position in the Grand Central area were for another chemical research library position in the Grand Central area! More recently, another specified that any new position with maps had to be above 116th Street in New York. It is also difficult to place the advertising librarian in a position in New Mexico or Arizona.

Attracting family men to the large metropolitan area is even more difficult than getting the unmarried librarian to locate in the small city or rural area. The experience of research laboratories that have made the move out of the city is no different for librarians than for other professional personnel. Qualified clerical staff are invariably in short supply, but for this, special librarians are prone to blame management rather than geography.

Where should the special library be placed on the organization chart? Without benefit of survey, special librarians seem to prefer identification professionally and administratively with research personnel, while identification with other general services—mail, photographic reproduction, etc.—is viewed with concern. A dichotomy is created when the library—established to be responsive to the needs of a single division, perhaps research, and because of success—is asked for service by sales, production, or other units. The management decision required is likely to shortchange someone, usually the library. One special librarian has suggested since only 14.8 percent of all special libraries are in 11 western states, (compared with 17.8 percent in New York) that west coast managements are less library oriented. The special librarian then, must spend time "preserving-justifying-promoting" the library.

How can special libraries participate in regional and national plans for resources cooperation? A recent summary of "Regional and National Co-ordinating and Planning for Library Service to Industry"⁷ is impressive both in the number and in the scope of informal and formal cooperative schemes, agreements, publications, and programs with which the special library has become identified.

The accomplishments are impressive in spite of recent implied warnings that "...ingrained cooperation among librarians..."⁸ would result in their cooperating themselves into oblivion.

No library, regardless of size, can be completely self-sufficient, least of all the special library which, by the very restrictions discussed earlier, looks invariably to other sources for materials—to other special libraries and to large public and university libraries. Cooperation in the development of collections and services is necessary in order to permit the special librarian to provide his users with all the information they need and when it is needed. As Gordon Williams told the 1965 SLA Annual Convention in a keynote address, "The question is not 'Should libraries cooperate?' but 'How can libraries cooperate most effectively?'"⁹

Williams urged special librarians to cooperate in several ways. First, he would wish for them to use their own funds (and resources) to support practical solutions to the problems in their own libraries. He would urge them, in addition, to seek support for national efforts to provide effective and efficient library and information services. Support of such efforts would include the national libraries: Library of Congress, National Agricultural Library, and the National Library of Medicine; the Federal Library Committee; the Committee on Scientific and Technical Information (COSATI) and its efforts for a coordinated national information network; the National Science Foundation; the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information; and the Library Services Branch in the Office of Education. These are, incidentally, some of the same forces at whose feet Vosper¹⁰ places blame for the present state of research libraries.

Special librarians through their professional associations are working with the national libraries; there is long-time affiliation with the Clearinghouse, NSF, and the DDC; and through regular and ad hoc committees, they are working with COSATI and its task forces.

An encouraging number of states have created or are studying cooperative plans aimed at providing improved library service, and special library interests have been represented in most instances. In New York State, special librarians were members of the Commissioner's Committee which in November 1960 presented the original 3 R's (Reference and Research Resources) proposal¹¹ for a state-wide network of state-supported reference centers. Later the detailed study¹² of the Rochester complex as a pilot area recognized that special libraries gave purpose and vitality to the program. Special librarians were also prominent in their attendance at the June, 1965, Governor's Conference on Libraries.

Other studies have been made. The one for New York City,¹³ conducted under the auspices of a self-constituted, ad hoc committee and supported by private funds, had the benefit of thoughtful advice of special librarians in public and private meetings of the Committee,

through interviews by the surveyors, and by representation on the Committee. Special libraries of three types—open or quasi-public, quasi-public but with restricted use policies, and private and generally closed to the public—were identified and related to a city-wide library program. Many private libraries, such as those in trade associations, public utilities and various non-profit and government agencies, are often accessible to qualified users upon special request.

Why are some special libraries leery of participation in cooperative projects? In New York and other cities, obviously, the student problem and the lack of seats, books, and staff to serve them, is of concern. How many of the 807 engineering students receiving graduate degrees in 1961-62 from five New York City universities used the Engineering Societies Library as a principal or secondary library? Or more frightening, how many of the thousands of undergraduate engineering students did? Proprietary interests, military security, the need to serve their own users first, the realization that the real solution is not the sharing of inadequate resources, all have had impact on thinking and decision.

Getting back to Williams' first point—that special libraries work out their own problems—this is the traditional and usual way. They look to one another and the possibility of shared resources, often through their contacts in the Special Libraries Association. It is not unusual for librarians in keenly competitive businesses—such as advertising, accounting, consulting, or pharmaceuticals—to cooperate and to share. The employers are better off because of it. Two very recent examples are two publications, Serials: Advertising, Business, Finance, Marketing, Social Science, in Libraries in the New York Area and a Rochester Area Union List of Periodical Holdings.

More formal agreements include those of the "Insiders" in Minneapolis, The Library Group of Southwestern Connecticut, Inc., Associated Science Libraries of San Diego, Medical Library Center of New York, the proposed Houston Technical Information Center, and the automated service to industry at Harvey Mudd College, Claremont, California. Informal schemes for acquisitions, serials, services, and storage exist by the hundreds and in all parts of the country—Hartford, Buffalo, New Jersey, Kansas City, Akron, Wilmington—to name just a few.

Special librarians need not be warned to be wary of "entangling alliances." They have been advised,¹⁴ and perhaps are over-sensitive, that the librarian must be convinced in each case that cooperation will serve the interests of his employer. Someone has suggested that people will cooperate only to the extent that they see a gain in it for themselves. The special librarian will remember that he is first an employee of his employer, and second, a professional librarian. Greater opportunity for special libraries to cooperate with one

another still exists. It is only unfortunate that some plans such as the New York State 3 R's program or that of The New York Metropolitan Reference and Research Library Agency do not admit the profit-oriented special library to full participation.

What of the future? The need for good special library service is increasing, as is the flow of good and bad information, the competition for qualified personnel, and the likelihood that modern technology can become a handmaiden. The solution is not simple and requires planning, openmindedness, hard work, and cooperation.

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APPENDIX I

VOLUMES HELD BY SPECIAL LIBRARIES IN NINE METROPOLITAN AREAS³

		Company	Govern- ment Agency	Non-Profit Organi- zations	Total
New York	<u>Number</u>	450	67	391	908
	<u>Volumes</u>	7,075,822	1,327,270	6,961,017	15,364,109
Baltimore and D.C.	<u>Number</u>	35	164	131	330
	<u>Volumes</u>	319,678	21,089,716	1,717,107	23,126,501
Chicago	<u>Number</u>	102	16	102	220
	<u>Volumes</u>	707,829	346,219	3,482,763	4,536,811
Philadelphia	<u>Number</u>	109	19	102	230
	<u>Volumes</u>	681,311	717,704	2,437,505	3,836,520
Boston	<u>Number</u>	74	21	82	177
	<u>Volumes</u>	342,654	1,212,775	2,397,003	3,952,432
Los Angeles	<u>Number</u>	101	11	41	153
	<u>Volumes</u>	718,181	87,369	913,837	1,719,387
San Francisco	<u>Number</u>	42	26	40	108
	<u>Volumes</u>	295,497	674,222	648,655	1,618,374
Detroit	<u>Number</u>	34	3	24	61
	<u>Volumes</u>	200,366	36,030	291,321	527,717
TOTAL	<u>Number</u>	947	327	913	2,187
	<u>Volumes</u>	10,341,338	25,491,305	18,849,208	54,681,851

APPENDIX II

JOURNAL SUBSCRIPTIONS RECEIVED BY SPECIAL LIBRARIES IN NINE METROPOLITAN AREAS³

		Company	Government Agency	Non-Profit Organizations	Total
	<u>Number</u>				
New York		310	42	254	606
	<u>Volumes</u>	67,130	16,781	41,684	125,595
Baltimore and D.C.	<u>Number</u>	30	125	89	244
	<u>Volumes</u>	6,341	75,692	12,417	94,450
Chicago	<u>Number</u>	87	14	65	166
	<u>Volumes</u>	15,521	4,192	16,317	36,030
Philadelphia	<u>Number</u>	99	17	78	194
	<u>Volumes</u>	20,872	3,416	14,115	38,403
Boston	<u>Number</u>	68	18	56	142
	<u>Volumes</u>	12,045	5,115	6,399	23,559
Los Angeles	<u>Number</u>	90	8	28	126
	<u>Volumes</u>	25,025	1,430	9,325	35,780
San Francisco	<u>Number</u>	30	18	23	71
	<u>Volumes</u>	8,378	3,873	7,699	19,950
Detroit	<u>Number</u>	34	3	19	56
	<u>Volumes</u>	6,275	245	2,373	8,893
TOTAL	<u>Number</u>	748	245	612	1,605
	<u>Volumes</u>	161,587	110,744	110,329	382,660

APPENDIX: TORONTO

H. C. Campbell

The Public Libraries Act of Ontario, which applies to libraries in cities, towns and villages throughout the Province, provides the general management, regulation and control of Public Libraries in cities through a Public Library Board, composed of the Mayor of the City or a member of the City Council appointed by him as his representative, three persons appointed by the City Council and three by the Board of Education, each for a 3-year period, and two by the Separate School Board, each for a 2-year period.

The dates of foundation for library boards in the Metropolitan Toronto area are as follows:

1883 Toronto	1945 York Township
1914 Western	1950 East York Township
1915 Mimico	1950 Etobicoke
1921 New Toronto	1955 North York Township
1922 Swansea	1955 Scarborough Township
1944 Leaside	1955 Forest Hill
1944 Long Branch	

The Toronto Public Library Board serving 680,000 residents out of more than 1,700,000 in the Metropolitan area maintains, in addition to the Central Library, 21 branches throughout the city, together with public libraries in 6 hospitals and more than a dozen other public institutions. Other municipalities maintain a total of 26 libraries, ranging in size from 3,000 to 170,000 volumes.

In 1959 the Toronto Public Library Board, by joint agreement with the library boards of the areas concerned, suspended its non-resident fees for persons who live in North York, East York, York Township, Forest Hill and Swansea. These are the municipalities that were immediately next to Toronto, and the total population benefiting under this arrangement was over 950,000 persons.

The Toronto Public Library Board's operating funds are derived from the following sources, the amounts provided being figures for the Year 1964:

H. C. Campbell is Chief Librarian, The Toronto Public Library, Toronto, Canada.

Public Library Rate -	\$2,198,901
Revenue from fines, rents and miscellaneous services -	450,111
Revenue from sources to other Boards -	126,820
Legislative Grant from the Province of Ontario -	237,777
Grant from Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto towards the cost of operation of the Central Library -	300,000

In 1963 the per capita expenditures, in order of magnitude, of the area Municipality Public Library Boards, as reported by the Ontario Department of Education, and the resident populations, were as follows:

	<u>Per Capita</u>	<u>Pop.:</u>		<u>Per Capita</u>	<u>Pop.:</u>
Leaside -	\$5.49	18,600	Etobicoke -	\$3.08	162,291
Toronto -	4.53	647,749	East York -	2.31	70,057
North York -	3.89	274,688	Scarborough -	2.14	227,197
New Toronto -	3.89	11,717	Mimico -	2.08	17,707
Forest Hill -	3.33	20,677	York Township -	1.87	126,905
Weston -	3.21	9,808	Swansea -	1.26	9,355
Long Branch -	3.17	11,091			

Free use of the Toronto Public Library System is extended to:

Residents of the City of Toronto; and persons employed in the City of Toronto;

Non-residents who pay property or business taxes to the City of Toronto, and their dependents;

All persons producing satisfactory evidence of membership in good standing of a public library of any of the municipalities of Metropolitan Toronto which have been admitted to free borrowing privileges;

Any employee of the Metropolitan Corporation;

Any full-time student at an educational institution within the city;

All boys and girls non-resident or not otherwise entitled to free service who are registered in Grade 8 in schools in Metropolitan Toronto are eligible to receive an adult card.

In 1964 there were 318,000 registered borrowers using the Toronto Public Library system. More than 850,000 requests were made for the use of materials from the Central Library. There were 90,000 telephone calls for information to the subject departments of the Central Library.

The total number of books in the Metropolitan public libraries in December, 1963, was 1,898,808, of which the Toronto Public Library system owned 1,106,758. More than 11,000,000 books were circulated by Metropolitan public libraries in 1963, of which the Toronto Public Library circulated approximately 4,500,000.

Since 1945 the Toronto Public Library Board has operated public libraries in the primary schools of the Township of East York under contract with the East York Board of Education. The Board has provided staff and book processing services since 1950 to the East York Public Library Board under contract. The Library Board provides a librarian and book purchasing facilities for the Village of Swansea since 1960. The Board provides its central catalogue services to numerous public library boards in Ontario and in other Provinces through the weekly distribution of its printed catalogue cards.

Because of the wide use made by non-residents of the Toronto Public Libraries, the Toronto Public Library Board, in 1957, submitted a brief to the Cumming Committee then making a review of the functioning of the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto. This brief pointed out the use being made of locally supported free library services by residents and non-residents in all portions of the Metropolitan area. The result was an amendment to the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto Act, (Bill 80) which made it possible for any public library board in any part of Metropolitan Toronto, which in the judgment of the Metropolitan Council provided library service to non-residents, to secure a yearly financial grant on either Capital or Current expenditures, if the council so approved.

Under this legislation the Library Board received a grant of \$25,000 in 1958 as an interim arrangement. This grant was repeated in 1959. In 1960, the grant was increased to \$100,000 and the same amount was given in 1961. In 1962, the grant was increased to \$250,000 although the Library Board has asked for \$450,000 to meet the costs of its consolidated Central Library services. The Board received \$250,000 in 1963 and \$300,000 for 1964. In 1959 \$76,000 was provided to meet construction costs for remodelling a portion of the Central Library.

A good deal is heard about the value of local control of small library units. These units are demonstrably unable to meet all of the needs of local residents, and in the Metropolitan Toronto Area this was recognized by the introduction of the public library amendment to Bill 80 in 1958. As long as the pattern of purely local support for public libraries prevailed, equitable distribution of services throughout Metropolitan Toronto was not possible.

Some form of consolidation of all the public libraries in Metropolitan Toronto into one system was the only way to achieve area-wide completeness of service, yet the experiment of local governments in urban areas in Canada showed that most local municipalities preferred to maintain control of whatever library services they could, regardless of the proven value of the services available only through larger units.

It has been recognized for many years that maintaining a certain

standard of public library service to serve fewer than 50,000 persons costs twice as much as the same standard if it is made available to a large population and is financed on the basis of 100,000 persons or over. The American and Canadian Library Associations' Standards have emphasized the value of a Regional Library system and the advantage of having a number of library outlets as part of the same system.

In the struggle to maintain small units in a Metropolitan area many people often suggest complicated financial arrangements for the redistribution of funds among both large and small groups. It is possible to work out a system of financial contracts that would in fact represent a functional consolidation of library service. Most Metropolitan areas are already sufficiently complex in their financial interdependence, and such a scheme of library grants is a slow and painful way of going about financing greater availability of public library service.

In order to establish some guide lines for the orderly development of a higher standard of public library service, and as a means to aiding the Metropolitan Council to apportion grants to area Library Boards, a study was carried out in 1959 by Dr. Ralph Shaw of Rutgers University, New Jersey, on behalf of the Library Trustees' Council of Toronto and District. This survey was financed by a grant from the Metropolitan Council and published in 1960.

The Report of Dr. Shaw emphasized that funds should be made available from both a Metropolitan and an area municipality level in order to improve public library services. The survey indicated that by a conservative method of estimation, approximately 14 percent of the lending services of the Toronto Public Library were to persons resident outside of the City of Toronto, and he recommended that one half of the cost of maintaining and servicing the reference collections of the Toronto Public Library should be paid by others rather than the taxpayers of the City of Toronto.

Among the principal recommendations by Dr. Shaw for the establishment of an integrated library scheme and improvement in the standard of services were the following:

That a Metropolitan Library Board be established.

That a centralized cataloguing and card preparation system be provided for all libraries, preferably by the Metropolitan Board.

That first priority in improvement of library services be given to Scarborough, North York, Etobicoke and York Township.

That regional branches, containing collections of at least 100,000 volumes be given first priority in plans for building libraries.

That development of neighbourhood branches, providing children's services and adult recreational and general reading, be given second priority.

That experimentation be undertaken for co-operative utilization of children's facilities by the school and public library in such a manner as will strengthen the programmes of both.

That the Toronto Public Library merge its reference and circulation departments into a single subject departmentalized library to be moved to a new building in a more central location.

That the Metropolitan Board bear the cost of services that are properly broader in range than the limits of any of the municipalities and which are necessary to all citizens of the area.

That a single library card, usable in all libraries, be issued.

That support for libraries in Metropolitan Toronto be increased at least to the level recommended by the Canadian Library Association standards.

That professional staff salaries be raised to the level recommended by the Canadian Library Association standards.

That collections of books and other library materials be vastly increased, particularly in the fields of reference books and adult nonfiction.

In dealing with the possibilities of amalgamation of all public libraries within one library system in the Metropolitan area, Dr. Shaw felt, at the time that he made his survey, that there was no compelling reason to amalgamate all of the services in view of the fact that all of them required extensive changes and improvement. Dr. Shaw, however, pointed out that there were single library systems serving populations much larger than Metropolitan Toronto and that no optimum size for a single library system had yet been determined. Dr. Shaw referred to the three library systems of Brooklyn, Queens Borough, and New York City, each of which serves populations considerably larger than Metropolitan Toronto.

In his conclusion, Dr. Shaw related the question of amalgamation of libraries to the general question of the pattern of local government for the Metropolitan area municipalities.

Seven of the library boards in the Metropolitan Toronto area were operating single libraries which give a range of adult, young people's and boys and girls services. Five of the above library boards were operating systems of libraries. It was these library boards which provide the strongest base for the expansion and development of public library service in the Metropolitan area. The Boards operating systems were Etobicoke Township, North York Township, Scarborough Township, Toronto, and York Township. Any consolidation of library services should be based on the consolidation of independent separate libraries with these existing systems or the consolidation of a number of the systems themselves.

Following receipt of the Shaw report, the Council of the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto, in July 1960, set up a Special Library Committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Richard Stanbury, former President of the Library Trustees' Council of Toronto and District.

The Special Committee in its report of December 17, 1962 recommended that the operation of libraries in Metropolitan Toronto

continue to be the responsibility of local library boards, but that a Metropolitan Library Board be established to encourage and coordinate the raising of library standards throughout the area. The Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board be composed as follows: five members who are trustees or who have been trustees of area library boards within Metropolitan Toronto; two members representing the Metropolitan Council; one member representing the Metropolitan School Board; and one member representing the Metropolitan Separate School Board. Four members should be residents of the City of Toronto.

For the expansion of library facilities the Special Committee recommended that as far as capital costs are concerned, the Metropolitan Library Board should assume the function of co-ordinating the expansion and construction of library facilities throughout the Metropolitan area; that the Metropolitan Library Board pay the full costs of any additions or relocation approved for the central reference library facilities; pay the basic cost of construction and equipping a network of regional libraries according to basic standards approved by the Metropolitan Council; and co-operate with local library boards in the planning and siting of neighbourhood libraries. The Metropolitan Library Board is also to assume responsibility for payment of any existing debenture debt as it applies to the central reference library and other existing libraries, or such portions thereof, as may be approved for designation as regional libraries.

On Operating costs, the Special Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board be authorized to contribute from a budget approved by the Metropolitan Council toward the operating costs of local library boards as follows: a yearly amount toward the cost of providing the central reference library services; an amount to local library boards to encourage compliance with standards of reference service in regional libraries; and the cost of authorized research projects.

The Special Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board establish salary standards for professional staff, co-ordinate the research programmes of the library boards, encourage interloan activities, establish a union catalogue, provide centralized cataloguing service, and work towards the development of a single library card for eligible Metropolitan users.

A BRIEF TO THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON METROPOLITAN TORONTO FROM THE TORONTO PUBLIC LIBRARY BOARD

1. Historical Background

- 1.1 The Toronto Public Library Board began operations on March 6, 1884, following the passing by the Toronto City

Council of the Free Library Bylaw on January 1, 1883, under the Free Libraries Act (1882) of the Province of Ontario. The Board took over the assets of the Mechanics' Institute and developed its services, partly with the assistance of the late Andrew Carnegie, who provided funds for the erection of 3 branches and the main Reference Library.

- 1.2 The Public Libraries Act of Ontario, which has had only minor amendments as it applies to libraries in cities, towns and villages, provides for the general management, regulation and control of the Toronto Public Libraries through the Toronto Public Library Board, composed of the Mayor of the City or a member of the City Council appointed by him as his representative, three persons appointed by the City Council and three by the Toronto Board of Education, each for a 3-year period, and two by the Separate School Board, each for a 2-year period.

- 1.3 The dates of foundation for other area municipality public library boards are as follows:

1914 Weston	1945 York Township
1915 Mimico	1950 East York Township
1921 New Toronto	1950 Etobicoke
1922 Swansea	1955 North York Township
1944 Leaside	1955 Scarborough Township
1944 Long Branch	1955 Forest Hill.

- 1.4 After 80 years of continuous operation, the Toronto Public Library Board now maintains, in addition to the Central Library, 21 branches throughout the city, together with public libraries in 6 hospitals and 17 primary schools, resulting in free public library service available within close proximity of each resident of the city.
- 1.5 In the establishment of branch libraries the Board, cognizant of the policy of the City for progressive annexation of adjoining municipalities, established several branches close to the City boundaries. However, abandonment of this annexation policy by the City in the 1920's has resulted in these branches serving residents living outside the City.
- 1.6 Since 1945 the Toronto Public Library Board has striven, by means of reciprocal arrangements with the other independent boards, to further the extension of free public library services, and it believes that a considerable extension of public access to books and reading has been achieved in this way. The present members of the Library Board would like to place on record their gratification in being associated with the many men and women on the Library Boards of the area municipalities who have been co-operating for so many years in an effort to secure a higher standard of public library service.

- 1.7 In 1959 the Toronto Public Library Board, by joint agreement with the library boards of the areas concerned, suspended the "non-resident" fee for persons who live in North York, East York, York Township, Forest Hill and Swansea. These are the municipalities that are immediately next to Toronto, and the total population benefiting under this arrangement is over 950,000 persons.

2. Duties of Staff of the Board

- 2.1 Under the Act the Board is directed to appoint a secretary, who may also be a librarian, a treasurer, who may also be the secretary or assistant secretary, and may appoint and remove such officers and servants as it may deem necessary. At the present time the Board has as its administrative officers a chief librarian, an assistant chief librarian, who is also secretary-treasurer, an administrative assistant, four heads of divisions, a maintenance engineer, 8 senior supervisors and 25 heads of Branches or services. The total staff establishment of librarians, clerical assistants and maintenance and care-taking personnel consists of 451 persons, of which 188 are professional librarians.

- 2.2 The Board has divided its operations between Central Library Division, a Technical Services Division and the Adult and Boys & Girls Branch Divisions. The first two Divisions are central services which provide assistance to the whole library system, the second two Divisions are concerned with local community needs of readers and users of the branch libraries.

- 2.3 Because of the close and daily contact which the branch librarians maintain with readers in their community, the services of each branch are directly related to the particular area served. Thus no two branches are alike in their exact book-stock or in the nature of the services rendered. All are alike, however, in their interest in providing readers and users with the specific book or information needed for the occasion.

3. Financing of the Board's Activities

- 3.1 Subject to the approval of the Ontario Municipal Board, the sums required by the Board for the purpose of acquiring a site, purchasing, erecting or remodelling a building or buildings, and in the first instance, for obtaining books and other things required for the library, on application of the Board, may be raised by the issue of municipal debentures, and all sums required to pay off the debentures issued, and to pay interest thereon, shall be raised by assessment on the rate-payers of the Municipality.

3.2 Under the Act, the Board is required to submit to the Municipal Council on or before the first day of March in each year a detailed estimate of the several sums required to cover its operations for the ensuing financial year. The Council of the Municipality is required to levy a special rate, to be called the Public Library Rate, sufficient to provide the amount estimated by the Board, but no such rate shall be levied that will yield more than fifty cents per capita of population of the municipality according to the last revised assessment roll except by a vote of the majority of the Council present and voting thereon.

3.3 The Board's operating funds are derived from the following sources, the amounts provided being figures for the year 1963:

Public Library Rate -	\$2,068,000
Revenue from fines, rents and miscellaneous services -	\$126,500
Legislative Grant from the Province of Ontario -	\$197,000
Grant from Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto towards the cost of operation of the Central Library -	\$250,000

3.4 In 1962 the per capita expenditures, in order of magnitude, of the area municipality library boards as reported by the Ontario Department of Education, and the resident populations, were as follows:

	<u>Per Capita</u>	<u>Pop:</u>		<u>Per Capita</u>	<u>Pop:</u>
Leaside -	\$5.03	18,850	Forest Hill -	\$2.83	20,985
New Toronto -	4.51	11,717	Scarborough -	2.09	209,898
Long Branch -	4.38	10,965	Mimico -	2.07	16,797
Toronto -	4.15	647,749	East York -	1.94	69,627
Weston -	3.44	9,715	York Township -	1.56	125,180
North York -	3.35	274,688	Swansea -	1.27	9,628
Etobicoke -	2.98	152,204			

4. Recent Buildings and Construction

4.1 Since 1953 the Toronto Public Library Board has established two branch libraries (Parliament Street Branch and Jones Avenue Children's Library), built a storage and reading room addition to the Central Library, and purchased a building to which it moved its expanded Music Library from the Central Library.

4.2 The Board has constructed a new adult, young people and boys and girls regional branch library on Queen Street West at Cowan Avenue to replace the building at Queen and Lisgar Streets. This building of 24,000 square feet capacity will house the specialized Languages and Literature collection,

formerly in the Central Library. The Board is building an addition at the Central Library to provide staff quarters, replace the Boys and Girls House and to provide headquarters for branch administration. A branch Library and Municipal Reference Library is included in the new City Hall expected to open in 1965, at which time the Business Reference library will be moved there from the Central Library.

- 4.3 As can be seen from the above, the Board is no longer able to find room in the existing Central library for all of the many special collections which it owns. On an average the branch library buildings of the Toronto Public Library Board are 40 - 50 years old, the majority of them having been constructed before 1924.

5. Who uses the Libraries.

- 5.1 The following regulations have been made by the Toronto Public Library Board concerning use of the libraries by the public.
- 5.2 Free use of the library, on payment of 10¢ for a card, shall be extended to:

Residents of the City of Toronto; and persons employed in the City of Toronto;

Non-residents who pay property or business taxes to the City of Toronto, and their dependants;

All persons producing satisfactory evidence of membership in good standing of a public library of any of the municipalities of Metropolitan Toronto which have been admitted to free borrowing privileges;

Any employee of the Metropolitan Corporation;

Any full-time student at an educational institution within the city;

All boys and girls non-resident or not otherwise entitled to free service who are registered in Grade 8 in schools in Metropolitan Toronto are eligible to receive an adult card.

- 5.3 Proof of residence or employment shall consist of the person's name appearing in the current city or telephone directory, or such other proof as the libraries registering the borrower shall consider satisfactory.

- 5.4 At the present time there are 318,000 registered borrowers using the Toronto Public Library system. In 1963 more than 750,000 requests were made for the use of materials from the Central Library. There were 79,000 telephone calls for information, including many from exchanges not in the City of Toronto.

- 5.5 The Library Board has information on the use made of its branch library collections by students from high schools all through the Metropolitan Toronto area and beyond. In the case

of the Downtown and Central libraries it has conducted surveys which show that over 50% of the users are non-residents.

- 5.6 The total number of books in the Metropolitan public libraries in December, 1962, was 1,898,808, of which the Toronto Public Library system owned 1,106,758. More than 10,000,000 books were circulated by Metropolitan public libraries in 1962, of which the Toronto Public Library circulated approximately 4,500,000.

6. Contractual arrangements with other Library Boards

- 6.1 Since 1945 the Board has operated public libraries in the primary schools of the Township of East York under contract with the East York Board of Education. The Board has provided staff and book processing services since 1950 to the East York Public Library Board under contract. The Library Board provides a librarian and book purchasing facilities for the Village of Swansea since 1960 and a Supervisor of School library services to the Toronto Board of Education.

- 6.2 The Board provides interloan service, particularly in the field of foreign language and literature, to all the library boards of Metropolitan Toronto. It receives books from and sends books to libraries in Ontario, in other provinces, and outside of Canada.

- 6.3 The Board provides its central catalogue services to numerous public library boards in Ontario and in other Provinces through the weekly distribution of its printed catalogue cards. Some of the public libraries making use of this service include Kingston, Fort William, Sudbury, Guelph.

7. Financial requirements of Public Libraries

- 7.1 Under the Public Libraries Act each library board is entitled to an annual grant of 50¢ per capita. All requests for money over and above such a grant must be approved by a majority of the Council of the Municipality. The Board believes that the minimum amount necessary for the provision of good public library service in urban areas serving 100,000 is over \$3.00 per capita.

- 7.2 Because of the wide use made by non-residents of the Toronto Public Libraries, the Toronto Public Library Board, in 1957, submitted a brief to the Cumming Committee then making a review of the functioning of the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto. This brief pointed out the use being made of locally supported free library services by residents and non-residents in all portions of the Metropolitan area. The result was an amendment to Bill 80 which made it possible for any public library board in any part of Metropolitan Toronto, which

in the judgment of the Metropolitan Council provided library service to non-residents, to secure a yearly financial grant on either Capital or Current expenditures, if the Council so approved.

- 7.3 Under this legislation the Library Board received a grant of \$25,000 in 1958 as an interim arrangement, pending the survey of Dr. Shaw. This grant was repeated in 1959. In 1960, the grant was increased to \$100,000 and the same amount was given in 1961. In 1962, the grant was increased to \$250,000 although the Library Board had asked for \$450,000 to meet the costs of its consolidated Central Library services. The Board received \$250,000 in 1963 and has requested \$450,000 for 1964. In 1959 \$76,000 was provided to meet construction costs of the Central Library.

7.4 Local versus Regional Organization

- 7.4.1 A good deal is heard about the value of local control of small library units. These units are demonstrably unable to meet all of the needs of local residents, and in the Metropolitan Toronto Area this was conclusively recognized by the introduction of the public library amendment to Bill 80 in 1958. As long as the pattern of purely local support for public libraries prevails, equitable distribution of funds and services throughout Metropolitan Toronto is not possible.

- 7.4.2 Outright consolidation of all of the public libraries in Metropolitan Toronto into one system is the only way to achieve area wide completeness of service, yet the experience of local governments in urban areas in Canada shows that most local municipalities prefer to maintain control of whatever library services they can, regardless of the proven value of the services available only through larger units.

- 7.4.3 It has been recognized for many years that maintaining a certain standard of public library service to serve less than 50,000 persons costs twice as much as the same standard if it is made available to a large population and is financed on the basis of 100,000 persons or over. The American and Canadian Library Associations Standards, the latter used as the basis for the Shaw Report, recognize the value of a Regional Library system and the advantages of having a number of library outlets as part of the same system.

- 7.4.4 In the struggle to maintain small units in a Metropolitan area many people often suggest complicated financial arrangements for the redistribution of funds among both large and small groups. It is possible to work out a system of financial contracts that would in fact represent a functional consolidation of library service. Most Metropolitan areas are already

sufficiently complex in their financial interdependence, and such a scheme of library grants is a slow and painful way of going about financing greater availability of public library service.

8. The Shaw Report on Public Library services in the Metropolitan Area

8.1 In order to establish some guide lines for the orderly development of a higher standard of public library service, and as a means to aiding the Metropolitan Council to apportion grants to area Library Boards, a study was carried out in 1959 by Dr. Ralph Shaw of Rutgers University, New Jersey, on behalf of the Library Trustees' Council of Toronto and District. This survey was financed by a grant from the Metropolitan Council and published in 1960.

8.2 The Report of Dr. Shaw emphasized that funds should be made available from both a Metropolitan and an area municipality level in order to improve public library services. The survey indicated that by a conservative method of estimation, approximately 14% of the lending services of the Toronto Public Library were to persons resident outside of the City of Toronto, and recommended that one half of the cost of maintaining and servicing the reference collections of the Toronto Public Library should be paid by others rather than the taxpayers of the City of Toronto.

8.3 Among the principal recommendations for the establishment of an integrated library scheme and improvement in the standard of services by Dr. Shaw were the following:

8.3.1 That a Metropolitan Library Board be established.

8.3.2 That a centralized cataloguing and card preparation system be provided for all libraries, preferably by the Metropolitan Board.

8.3.3 That first priority in improvement of library services be given to Scarborough, North York, Etobicoke and York Township.

8.3.4 That regional branches, containing collections of at least 100,000 volumes be given first priority in plans for buildings libraries.

8.3.5 That development of neighbourhood branches, providing children's services and adult recreational and general reading, be given second priority.

8.3.6 That experimentation be undertaken for co-operative utilization of children's facilities by the school and public library in such a manner as will strengthen the programmes of both.

8.3.7 That the Toronto Public Library merge its reference and circulation departments into a single subject departmentalized library to be moved to a new building in a more central location.

- 8.3.8 That the Metropolitan Board bear the cost of services that are properly broader in range than the limits of any of the municipalities and which are necessary to all citizens of the area.
- 8.3.9 That a single library card, usable in all libraries, be issued.
- 8.3.10 That support for libraries in Metropolitan Toronto be increased at least to the level recommended by the Canadian Library Association standards.
- 8.3.11 That professional staff salaries be raised to the level recommended by the Canadian Library Association standards.
- 8.3.12 That collections of books and other library materials be vastly increased, particularly in the fields of reference books and adult non-fiction.
- 8.4 The Toronto Public Library Board has incorporated many of the suggestions contained in the Report of Dr. Shaw in its own planning for services under its control. The Library Board in 1960 merged the Reference and Circulation departments of the Central Library by setting up a number of specialized subject departments. The Board is continuing to establish new subject departments as facilities and staff become available.
- 8.5 The use made of the collections in the Central Library in 1963 can be seen from the following:

CENTRAL LIBRARY DIVISION: Statistics of use - 1963

	<u>Books & Materials Used</u>	<u>Readers in the Library</u>	<u>Telephone Enquiries to the library</u>
Literature & Kipling	370,923	--	8,946
General Reference	162,025	126,353	37,074
Toronto Room	23,883	21,190	983
Science	32,307	24,509	2,043
Fine Art	70,857	33,372	3,793
Theatre	30,184	20,787	2,315
Hallam	89,520	58,610	6,515
Baldwin Room	8,523	2,361	2,039
Bibliographic Centre	--	1,844	16,167
TOTAL 1963 -	788,222	289,026	79,875

- 8.6 In dealing with the possibilities of amalgamation of all public libraries within one library system in the Metropolitan area, the report of Dr. Shaw considered this matter at some

length. Dr. Shaw felt, at the time that he made his survey, that there was no compelling reason to amalgamate all of the services in view of the fact that all of them required extensive changes and improvement. Dr. Shaw, however, pointed out that there were single library systems serving populations much larger than Metropolitan Toronto and that no optimum size for a single library system had yet been determined. Dr. Shaw referred to the three library systems of Brooklyn, Queens Borough, and New York City, each of which serves populations considerably larger than Metropolitan Toronto.

8.7 In his conclusion, Dr. Shaw related the question of amalgamation of libraries to the general question of the pattern of local government for the Metropolitan area municipalities.

8.8 Following the Report of Dr. Shaw, the Library Board stated that it would be prepared to work with other library boards to carry out those recommendations which could be implemented, due regard being made for the wishes of other library boards.

8.9 The Toronto Public Library Board considers that there is now definite need for consolidation of library services, as many changes have taken place since the time when Dr. Shaw's report was prepared. In making its recommendations for a rearrangement of public library responsibilities, the Library Board has been guided by the various changes that have taken place in the growth of libraries, and the various recommendations which have been made by the Committees which have studied the matter since the Shaw report was issued. Some of these changes are outlined below.

9. Growth of Services of Library Boards in the Metropolitan Area

9.1 The report of Dr. Shaw recorded the growth of public library services up to 1958 and provided a basis on which plans for Metropolitan public library co-operation and a higher standard of service could be developed.

9.2 That some progress has been made since that date can be seen from the situation in December, 1962 as reported by the Ontario Provincial Library Service. It might be noted that in many cases the information collected concerning 1962 conditions in all municipalities in comparison to the information for 1958 requires explanation, since many fundamental changes concerning library conditions and methods had taken place in recent years. One of the principal changes which affected the Toronto Public Library system was the change to a 21-day, rather than 14-day, borrowing period; and the stopping of telephone renewals for books. In addition, the Library Board decreased its circulation in School Libraries by over 215,000

volumes since, in line with one of the recommendations of Dr. Shaw, it transferred the responsibility for operating these libraries to the Toronto Board of Education.

- 9.3 Statistical statements of library expenditure and book circulation without supporting details are often misleading and provide an inadequate view of the scope of library service. These figures can be made more meaningful if they are related to the quality of operations. As Dr. Shaw indicated, there is urgent need for a Metropolitan Area programme of research and investigation into library methods in order to find the best way to relate costs to performance. However, the figures below indicate some of the changes in library resources and use which have occurred since the survey of Dr. Shaw.

	Volumes		Book Circulation		Total Expenditure	
	1958	1962	1958	1962	1958	1962
East York						
Twp.	19,043	43,001	126,070	286,800	\$ 43,545	\$ 132,246
Etobicoke						
Twp.	76,281	153,100	530,700	1,048,628	199,152	456,646
Forest Hill	8,003	21,766	41,002	82,950	13,958	49,542
Leaside	27,923	42,647	144,536	189,892	152,516	94,890
Long Branch	16,954	22,703	94,790	97,670	23,395	32,096
Mimico	18,457	25,973	66,608	86,091	20,437	34,774
New Toronto	29,026	36,557	99,260	109,596	37,726	52,855
North York						
Twp.	80,284	257,631	766,790	2,404,326	309,928	920,635
Scarborough						
Twp.	58,553	169,400	776,593	1,506,013	167,386	440,691
Swansea	4,989	--	11,641	--	2,088	11,736
Toronto	941,914	1,006,758	4,262,132	4,436,516	1,778,565	2,689,407
Weston	17,860	--	95,937	--	20,241	32,758
York Twp.	87,836	119,272	394,109	499,703	142,427	195,772
TOTALS	<u>1,387,123</u>	<u>1,898,808</u>	<u>7,410,168</u>	<u>10,748,185</u>	<u>\$2,911,364</u>	<u>\$5,144,048</u>

- 9.4 Seven of the above library boards are operating single libraries which give a range of adult, young people's and boys and girls services. Five of the above library boards are operating systems of libraries. It is these library boards which provide the strongest base for the expansion and development of public library service in the Metropolitan area. The boards operating systems are Etobicoke Township, North York Township, Scarborough Township, Toronto, and York Township. Any consolidation of library services should be based on the consolidation of independent separate libraries with these existing systems or the consolidation of a number of the systems themselves.

10. Report of the Metropolitan Special Library Committee

10.1 Following receipt of the Shaw report, the Metropolitan Council, in July 1960, set up a Special Library Committee under the chairmanship of Mr. Richard Stanbury. The Toronto Public Library Board submitted its views concerning the recommendations of Dr. Shaw to the Special Library Committee. Members of the Toronto Public Library Board participated in the work of the Committee.

10.2 The Toronto Public Library Board has received the report of the Special Metropolitan Library Committee, dated December 17, 1962, concerning the establishment and operation of a Metropolitan Library Board and other suggestions for the improvement of library services. These recommendations are as follows:

10.3 Composition of the Metropolitan Library Board

The Special Committee has recommended that the operation of libraries in Metropolitan Toronto continue to be the responsibilities of local library boards, but that a Metropolitan Library Board be established to encourage and co-ordinate the raising of library standards throughout the area. The Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board be composed as follows: five members who are trustees or who have been trustees of area library boards within Metropolitan Toronto; two members representing the Metropolitan Council; one member representing the Metropolitan School Board; and one member representing the Metropolitan Separate School Board. Four members should be residents of the City of Toronto.

10.4 Capital Costs and Library Planning

For the expansion of library facilities the Special Committee recommended that as far as capital costs are concerned, the Metropolitan Library Board assume the function of co-ordinating the expansion and construction of library facilities throughout the Metropolitan area; that the Metropolitan Library Board pay the full costs of any additions or relocation approved for the central reference library facilities; pay the basic cost of construction and equipping a network of regional libraries according to basic standards approved by the Metropolitan Council; and co-operate with local library boards in the planning and siting of neighbourhood libraries. The Metropolitan Library Board is also to assume responsibility for payment of any existing debenture debt as it applies to the central reference library and other existing libraries, or such portions thereof, as may be approved for designation as regional libraries.

10.5 Grants to Meet Operating Costs

On Operating costs, the Special Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board be authorized to contribute from a budget approved by the Metropolitan Council towards the operating costs of local library boards as follows: a yearly amount toward the cost of providing the central reference library services; an amount to local library boards to encourage compliance with standards of reference service in regional libraries; and the cost of authorized research projects.

- 10.6 The Special Committee recommended that the Metropolitan Library Board establish salary standards for professional staff, co-ordinate the research programmes of the library boards, encourage interloan activities, establish a union catalogue, provide a centralized cataloguing service, and work towards the development of a single library card for eligible Metropolitan users.

11. A New Central Administration of Public Library Services

- 11.1 The Board has set out the many problems that are of concern to library boards in the area municipalities. As can be seen from this statement, the present position of public library finance and services is unsatisfactory. The Toronto Public Library Board feels strongly that the system of 13 independent public library boards operating under the present Public Libraries Act is unsuited to the public library requirements in Metropolitan Toronto.

- 11.2 Following the Report of the Special Library Committee, the Toronto Public Library Board advised the Metropolitan Council that as an interim measure and pending final arrangements for library services, the Library Board was prepared to co-operate with a Metropolitan Board which had responsibilities recommended by the Special Committee.

- 11.3 The Toronto Public Library Board regrets that suitable legislation to make adjustments for the needs of public libraries in the Metropolitan area has not been recommended by the Metropolitan Council. The Library Board has considered carefully all of the proposals which have been made in the past 7 years to develop a library system for the area. The Board is of the opinion that many of the problems faced by individual Library Boards can not be solved without some measure of central administration of public library services.

- 11.4 The Toronto Public Library Board considers that it is now an urgent matter to co-ordinate the reference and circulating public library collections and plan for the use of book and information resources on an area-wide basis. The Board does not consider that public library services in the Metropolitan

area can be carried out economically on a piecemeal basis, nor that residents of the area should be limited to the use of the resources of a single local public library.

- 11.5 The Toronto Public Library Board does not feel that the central planning and co-ordination of public library services is a danger to be avoided. This Board considers that in the interests of the public, it is absolutely necessary that there be common administration of certain public library services now carried on by independent boards.

- 11.6 The Board therefore recommends that the following services should be placed under Central administration:

- 11.6.1 The Central Library and the specialized Subject Collections maintained by the Toronto Public Library Board and other area municipalities.

- 11.6.2 The Regional libraries as advocated in the Shaw Report.

- 11.6.3 The Technical Services necessary for processing and cataloguing all books and other materials acquired for public libraries in the area.

- 11.6.4 The borrower registration and overdue book services which would permit the use of a single library card for all residents of the Metropolitan area.

12. Organization of Library Districts

- 12.1 This Board recommends that the 13 existing separate boards be brought together in a scheme of Central and District organization. The Central organization would operate the central services. Four or five library Districts should be set up to operate District services.

- 12.2 These District services would be formed on the basis of the existing Library Boards which would be consolidated under the Public Library Act into Union Boards, or, if there are changes in the Municipal boundaries at some future date, would follow these boundaries.

- 12.3 The principal characteristic of a Library District would be that it served a population of not less than 200,000 persons. It might be expected that if the Districts were of approximately equal size, they would serve populations of from 400,000 to 500,000 in number.

- 12.4 Each District would have a District library and a District Library Board with responsibility for a wide measure of local operation and management of both Regional and Neighborhood public libraries. The Report of Dr. Shaw pointed out that in addition to Neighborhood Libraries, there should be Regional Libraries, each with collections of up to 100,000 volumes. Such libraries could best be administered as the components of Library Districts. Each Library District would have not less than

3 Regional Libraries plus the necessary Neighborhood Libraries or Bookmobiles as required.

12.5 The purpose and function of any District library would be as follows:

12.5.1 To be the Headquarters, and plan and carry out the administration of the library services in the District.

12.5.2 To provide, throughout the District system of large and small branches and bookmobiles, a book collection adequate for the library needs of local residents.

12.5.3 To be accessible to any resident of the Metropolitan area.

12.5.4 To have a minimum operating budget (which would not include cost of debt charges) of \$500,000 or \$3.00 per capita, whichever is the greater.

13. Composition of Each Library District

13.1 In order to provide some idea of the manner in which Regional Libraries could be administered in separate Library Districts under a common administration, the following arrangement is proposed: (The Regions referred to are those outlined by Dr. Shaw in his Report on Metropolitan Libraries.)

13.2 Northern District:

North York Main Library
New No. 5 Regional Library (Downsview)
New No. 4 Regional Library (Don Mills)
Eventual New Regional Library (Woodbine & Sheppard)

13.3 Eastern District:

New No. 1 Regional Library
New No. 2 Regional Library
New No. 3 Regional Library
Eventual New Regional Library (Markham & Sheppard area)
Eventual New Regional Library (Littles Rd. & Sheppard area)

13.4 Western District:

Etobicoke Main Library
New Toronto Regional Library
New No. 6 Regional Library
New No. 8 Regional Library

13.5 West Centre District:

York Township Library
New No. 7 Regional Library
New No. 9 Regional Library (Parkdale)

13.6 Centre District:

George H. Locke Regional Library
New No. 11 Library (Deer Park)
New No. 10 Library (City Hall)
East York Regional Library

- 13.7 There are various ways in which such Districts could be established. The Library Board trusts that the future political and financial machinery of local government in the Metropolitan Area will be so organized that public library service will be incorporated with it and will be operated on a Metropolitan-wide basis.
14. Standards for Regional Libraries
- 14.1 Since each District would contain several Regional Libraries, and each Regional Library would serve the population of its Region through Neighborhood Libraries, as well as from its own collection, there is very great need to have an agreed standard for the operation and maintenance of such Regional Libraries.
- 14.2 The Special Library Committee has recommended that Standards for Regional Libraries should be the responsibility of a Library Board which has overall responsibilities for the Metropolitan Area. The Toronto Public Library Board agrees that such standards must be Metropolitan-wide. Otherwise, the benefits which can be secured from an equal standard of library service will not be possible throughout the whole area.
- 14.3 The Toronto Public Library Board has established standards for regional library operation service which it feels can be utilized in developing regional libraries in future years. These standards cover the provision of buildings and bookstock, the administering of staff and other requirements necessary for a high standard of adult, young peoples and boys and girls library service.
15. Financial Changes
- 15.1 In suggesting the need for consolidation and overall planning for the Central and District library organization in Metropolitan Toronto, the Toronto Public Library Board is well aware that without suitable financial arrangements, superior to those now existing, such changes in structure in themselves will result in little improvement.
- 15.2 Recommendations on Current Annual Expenditures:
- 15.2.1 The expenditures in 1962 for all public library boards in the Metropolitan Area amounted to \$5,144,048. Debt charges amounted to \$396,482 so that total expenditures for current needs were approximately \$4,747,566. To meet these expenditures, the area Boards received the following amounts:
- | | |
|---|-------------|
| From the Public Library Rate - | \$3,734,407 |
| From the Legislative Grant - | 415,367 |
| From the Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto - | 250,000 |
| From other sources, fines, rentals, gifts, etc. - | 347,792. |

- 15.2.2 Public Library Boards thus receive about 85% of their financial support for current expenditures from the area municipalities and Metro, 9% from the Provincial Government, and 6% from other sources. The Toronto Public Library Board accordingly recommends that any new Public Library Board established for the Metropolitan Area be empowered to utilize the Public Library Rate and other funds at its disposal to provide funds for public library purposes in the following respects:

Operation of the Central processing and Central borrower registration services.

Operation of the Central Library and special collections. Allocations for the operation of the District and Regional Libraries.

15.3 Capital Costs;

- 15.3.1 The Special Library Committee has recommended that Capital costs for all public library construction with the exception of neighborhood libraries should be met by a central library board. As well, the Committee proposed that existing debt charges of the Regional and Central reference libraries should be assumed by the same body.

- 15.3.2 In 1962 the annual debt charges for all library boards amounted to \$396,482. The Toronto Public Library would recommend that both new Capital construction and the administration of debt charges be the responsibility of a new Central administration.

16. Conclusion

- 16.1 The Toronto Public Library Board recommends that legislation to establish a consolidated library system in the Metropolitan area under a Library Board with powers to operate both Central and District public library services be drawn up as speedily as possible, and that a recommendation for such legislation form an integral part of the recommendations of the Goldenberg Commission for adjustment in the municipal governmental structure of Metropolitan Toronto.

- 16.2 The Toronto Public Library Board has declared itself willing to co-operate in the setting up of such a Library Board to bring about the equalization of public library services to all residents in the Metropolitan Area. The Board would view such consolidation or amalgamation of public library services as a feasible and workable solution to present difficulties.

- 16.3 The Toronto Public Library Board considers that for the provision of the essential central services for all public libraries in the Metropolitan Area there must be legislative provision for not less than \$850,000 to cover the costs of the Central Library, Central processing and Central borrowers

registration and overdue control.

- 16.4 The Board further believes that a minimum of \$3.00 per capita is required by legislation to meet the operating costs of District and Regional library services exclusive of debt charges and the costs of Central services. Of this amount, \$2.50 should be provided as a minimum from the Public Library Rate, with a minimum of 50¢ per capita directly from the Provincial Government, in place of the present Legislative Grant. The combined minimum amount necessary for both Central and District services would be \$3.50.
- 16.5 On the basis of present population such grants would provide \$5,650,000 for current operating costs of all Metropolitan public libraries. This amount would provide a minimum basis for library service in the area. The recommendation of Dr. Shaw pointed out that first priority attention for new regional library construction should be given to Scarborough, North York, Etobicoke and York Township, and probably in that order. The library services in these districts would be substantially improved under such a financial arrangement.
- 16.6 Beyond the above minimum provisions, District library services could be augmented by funds provided on a local or District basis. In this manner, the requirements of particular areas would be met, once the minimum provision was assured. It could be estimated that to bring all public library service to the level now provided in some area municipalities would involve an annual budget, on the basis of 1962 population, of \$6,500,000.
- 16.7 The matter which the Toronto Public Library Board does not believe should be allowed to continue is the present inadequate legislation governing the sharing of costs for public library services as between the area municipalities and individual public library boards. The Toronto Public Library Board respectfully requests that urgent consideration be given to adequate legislation to meet the present and future needs of public library users in the Metropolitan Toronto area.

Theresa G. Falkner,
Chairman

Dalton C. Wells,
Vice-Chairman

H. C. Campbell
Chief Librarian

January 30, 1964

ANNEX I

Preliminary Review of the Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Metropolitan Toronto as They Affect Public Libraries

The Royal Commission on Metropolitan Toronto made the following recommendations concerning public library services:

5. Metropolitan and Local Services

"xiii. The operation of libraries should remain a local responsibility in each of the four cities, with coordination by a metropolitan Library Board. The recommendations of Report No. 1 (1962) of the Special Committee on Library Services appointed by the Metropolitan Council to study and report upon the Shaw report should, as far as possible, be implemented."

In the light of this recommendation, and should it be adopted, it is clear that the Toronto Public Library Board would be faced with the operation of the libraries now located in Toronto, East York, Swansea, Leaside, York Township, and Forest Hill.

The following observations have been made by Heads of Divisions and the Assistant Chief Librarian with a view to assisting the Board in its study of the implications of the Report of the Royal Commission.

CHAPTER II. Amalgamation of Toronto, East York, Swansea, Leaside, York and Forest Hill.(A) General administration(i) Combined expenditures

Figures for the year 1964 (latest available) of population, assessment, total cost, book purchases, salaries and wages, salaries of librarians, and number of staff on a consolidated basis, together with predictions for the years 1967 and 1969 are shown in Table I below:

TABLE I

Consolidated for the Six Municipalities

	<u>1964</u>	<u>1967</u>	<u>1969</u>
Population ¹	891,357.	904,000.	923,000.
Assessment ²	\$2,422,672,831.	\$2,500,000,000.	\$2,590,000,000.
Total Expenditure ³	3,832,300.	4,592,320.	4,992,340.
Book Purchases ⁴	480,156.	750,000.	900,000.
Salaries & Wages ⁵	2,310,000.	3,306,470.	3,594,485.
Salaries Librarians ⁶	1,227,000.	1,600,000.	1,800,000.
No. of Staff	524	534	603

1. Population figures are calculated in accordance with Mr. Goldenberg's prediction for 1971 and the pattern of increase over the last five years.
2. Assessment predictions are based on the trend and pattern of the last five years for the 6 municipalities.
3. Total expenditure is predicted on the basis of a fairly steady increase in per capita expenditure over the last five years applied to the forecast of population, adjusted for inter-library payments in 1969.
4. Book purchases are a projection of the pattern and trend of the combined book purchasing of the last five years.
5. Salaries and wages are projected as 72% of the total expenditure.
6. Salaries Librarians are a projection of the pattern of increases in wage rates and numbers experienced over the past five years.

Predictions for 1969 are adjusted for elimination of the present inter-library payments for services on contract, but allow for maintaining present standards of library service. Policy decisions as to the type and scope of collections to be maintained in the various branches; to extend mechanization or introduce automation in the purchasing, accounting and charge-out fields; to increase paperback holdings and decrease book repair or vice versa, will affect the predictions for 1969.

(ii) Financial

Table II below shows a comparison of the 1964 Toronto library mill rate, the mill rate on the consolidated levies for 1964, and the resultant mill rate had the consolidation been in effect for that year. The difference between the mill rate on the consolidated levies and that had the consolidation been in effect for 1964, being .01 of a mill, is accounted for by an estimated reduction of \$35,000 in the legislative grant under consolidation, as the grant rate for three of the libraries

based on per capita assessment is greater than the rate will be under consolidation.

The consolidation should result in a decreased library mill rate for the residents of Toronto and an increase for those of East York, Swansea, Leaside and Forest Hill.

TABLE II

PUBLIC LIBRARY RATES

1964 City of Toronto Mill Rate	1.29		
1.29 mills on a combined assessment of	\$2,422,672,831.		
1964 Combined Library Levies		2,653,703. (Mtce)	
		<u>265,000</u> (Debt	
			Charges)
		<u>\$2,918,703</u>	R.
On an assessment of \$2,422,672,831 =	<u>1.20 mills</u>		
Combined expenses for 1964			\$3,832,300.
Deduct:			
Inter-library payments	126,820.		
Estimated Provincial Grant	288,961.		
Metro Grant	300,000.		
Other Internal Revenues (etc.)			
East York	\$5,100.		
Forest Hill	6,000.		
Leaside	8,400.		
Swansea	—		
Toronto	150,000.		
York Twp.	<u>3,300.</u>	<u>172,800.</u>	<u>888,581.</u>
			\$2,943,719.

On an assessment of \$2,422,672,831 = 1.21 mills

Gross per capita expenditure	\$4.30
Net per capita expenditure	3.08
Toronto per capita expenditure Gross	4.95
Toronto per capita expenditure Net	3.90

(B) Branches Division

In the beginning this should not present many problems from the operational point of view. The librarians from the six areas have had experience or are familiar with the working of libraries in the Toronto area.

All of them have similar objectives in the service they offer, but it will be necessary to allay any feeling that the change in operation implies an absorption of the small libraries by the larger.

This means that each of the area libraries must be involved in all planning operations that go forward. I would suggest the following steps be undertaken immediately.

Establishment of the following four staff committees to study and make recommendations on:

I. Regional Libraries in the "City of Toronto"

At present there are four libraries in the area that lend themselves physically to this purpose.

The East

East York Public Library - headquarters of the Eastern area. This library has facilities to accommodate a sufficiently large book stock and an active extension programme. Parking is good. The location is not ideal but this may not be too important as its services become better known in the eastern end of the city.

The West

York Township or Parkdale are the only libraries with sufficient space to offer complete regional service, and neither is ideally located. A new library in the Bloor and Gladstone area would serve the purpose better. In the meantime York Township seems the better location.

The Centre

City Hall - This seems much more closely allied to the Central area both geographically and in the nature of the work that is likely to be done there. Perhaps the nature of its function will be clarified over the next five years.

Deer Park - Good location but changes would be necessary to accommodate a larger book collection, provide auditorium space, better work space and parking facilities. Land should be acquired on Alvin Avenue for extension of parking area, as already provided for in the Capital Programme for 1967.

II. Neighbourhood Libraries

Areas that need improved services:

York Township

Two branches now under consideration:

1. Keele Street Area
2. New building for Jane Street Library

East York

Two branches under consideration;

1. Torrens & Pape
2. Topham Park Area

Swansea

Change in service to this area may be advisable.

Toronto Areas

New Boys and Girls building for Manning Branch.
Eglinton and Yonge (replacing St. Clements).
Bloor and Palmerston.

III. Staff Training and Extension Work

Some changes will be required in this area. There will be 206 librarians in place of the present 177. When branch processing comes into effect, experienced cataloguers, etc. will be required for this purpose and will be available from the three libraries which now maintain these departments.

Changes in staff for regional libraries will have to be made. Each region will require a staff of

- 1 Librarian (5) head of Region + clerical staff 1 (2)
- 1 Librarian (4) head of Branch
- 1 Librarian (3) in charge of Reference
- 1 Librarian (3) in charge of Young People's
- 1 Librarian (3) in charge of Boys and Girls

IV. Book Selection and Ordering Coordination

If the Goldenberg report is adopted in 1966 or 1967 some 300,000 books will be added to the book stock of the Branches Division, the annual book budget will increase by approximately \$150,000 (plus regional grants) and the circulation figures will be increased by over one and a quarter million. This is obviously going to require changes in methods of book ordering and an increase in staff.

The division of the single-copy ordering from multiple copy ordering of books is something that must be examined immediately. It seems that this should speed-up the book ordering processes and simplify the work of the department.

New Books

Space is required where these books can be examined without

interfering with the work of the department. Central and Branches could share this space, and would be able to see all the books that were under consideration for both divisions.

Multiple Orders

Work needs to be done in building up reliable lists of basic books in all areas so that branches can be assured of balanced collections.

Reference books for large and neighbourhood libraries.

Basic subject lists for adult, young people's and children's collections.

As many librarians as possible should be involved directly in book selection. With the addition of new staff, the various committees can be enlarged. Some experiments in the area would be interesting and beneficial.

1965 - 1971

According to Mr. Goldenberg, Toronto's population will increase by over 3-1/2% over the next five years. Several tendencies in book circulation are already evident.

Increased High School enrollment and re-training programmes will necessitate building up the Young People's collections.

York Township's circulation is 50% children's books. This too will have to be taken care of in the Boys and Girls budget.

Special notice must be taken of these and other similar trends in drawing up the book budget and salary requirements for the next five years.

(C) Central Library Division

- (a) In many ways amalgamation should simplify and strengthen Central Library Division operation, as the addition (with exception of Swansea) of what would be in effect strong regional branches should hasten the process of building up all regional library collections, at least in the new "City of Toronto," with many services now supplied by the Central Library thus eventually siphoned off, allowing in turn for an increased preoccupation with building up specialized subject collections.
- (b) Consideration may have to be given to revising policy of placing every title in Central Library before it appears in a branch. There is some argument for letting branches and regional centres take care of much popular and current demand and allowing the Central sections to proceed more specifically with the building up of reference and research collections.

- (c) Thus, General Reference at one end, and Kipling at the other, might more specifically be considered model collections for the regional centres, primarily, but for all the branches, to a certain extent, it would be hoped, taking care of more and more of the student demand that presently tends to stultify the growth of some collections as reference and research aids. This possibility becomes all the more attractive when the heavy use, for popular reading and reference, is foreseen in the proposed literature and history sections, of the kind already experienced in the Theatre section.
- (d) Circulation from the Central collections might be expected to decrease, actual reference use to increase; proportions of circulating to reference materials would also decrease. Taking the place of circulation of materials would be increased documentation and reproduction service, not only to individuals but to branches of the library system.
- (e) Holdings of periodicals would greatly increase, again with increased reproduction services following, and, as well, an increase in provision by the Central Library of Xeroxed materials for regional and branch vertical files.
- (f) The Central Library would expect to initiate booklists, bibliographies on special subjects, and more indexing and publishing than at present.
- (g) Certain present system-wide services would expand with the increase of over 1/3 in population to be served. The present pool operation, while needing overhaul, would seem to be worth maintaining, in view of the need to preserve last copies and out-of-print items. Interloan would also need overhauling and likely expansion in order to provide a better and speedier service throughout the new city, and to encourage its use.
- (h) The Bibliographic Centre Catalogue would incorporate the holdings of Swansea, Leaside, and York Township (in the case of the last-mentioned, before 1963) and these libraries, along with Forest Hill would come into the computer paperback project.
- (i) Despite increased use by all sections of methods of storage of non-book materials in vertical files, any acceleration of acquisition of specialized materials will involve closer and more detailed cataloguing, or special indexing; with implications for Technical Services that are already being felt.

- (j) The implications of the Ash Report, when it is received in 1966, will provide the guide lines in building up the specialized sections of the Central Library.
- (k) In view of the foregoing comments, it would appear that the cataloguing and acquisition staff of the present Technical Services Division will be needed in future years to handle the material purchased by the Central Library. In view of the increase in purchasing for the Central Library it is doubtful whether any branch acquisitions or cataloguing could be handled in the space now occupied by this section of Technical Services.

(D) Technical Services

The table on the next page indicates the volume of technical services performed by each of the six municipalities during 1964:

A summary statement of the requirements in handling the needs of the six municipalities would recommend the following:

Book Selection

1. Bigger committee and/or subcommittees.
2. Increase of record keeping for budget control.
3. Physical and personnel requirements.

Order

1. Increase in number of volumes for finishers.
2. Need for more working space and equipment.

Cataloguing

1. Need for more cataloguers and clericals dependent on growth of book budget (one person for every 3,000 titles purchased), personnel to be absorbed from other systems.
Volume handling increased by 1/4 for 13,000 additional catalogued non-fiction.
2. Offset printer's work increased by 1/4 for above 13,000 plus 1/3 for branch publicity materials.
3. Recataloguing and reclassification to reconcile differences among libraries.

Book Repair

1. Increase in repair and binding quotas determined by size, nature and circulation of library collections involved.
2. Increase in staff to handle additional volume of work.
3. Increase in use of materials and equipment.

TABLE III

Technical Services 1964 Statistics

	<u>Registrations</u>		<u>\$ Cost of Book Acqui- sitions</u>	<u>Books Pro- cessed</u>	<u>*Books Repaired</u>	<u>Book Stock</u>	<u>Borrowers</u>	<u>Circu- lation</u>
	<u>Adult</u>	<u>Juvenile</u>						
Forest Hill	2768	518	25,492	6305	1/50 of 36,385 (728)	36,385	11,803	215,055
Leaside			18,246		(928)	46,407	10,543	197,668
York Township			38,256	18,000	(2761)	138,025	39,007	537,806
East York	3286	2697	30,924		(1124)	56,203	33,241	324,412
Swansea	Not Broken Down (H.W.)		4,813		(120) (5661)	6,086	2,631	25,285
Toronto	62,190	31,037	362,425	120,730	*	1,021,938	287,851	4,666,334

* 20,150 Books repaired by Toronto = 2519 per person (staff of 8)

5,661 require two (2) more staff and 1/4 more space.

Gifts & Exchanges

1. Total increase in gifts over present figure.

Display

1. Additional artist plus more working space and equipment for additional load.

Registration

1. Need for more space, particularly for additional records.
2. Need for more staff and furniture to accommodate them.
3. Need for additional supplies.
4. New location for whole department in view of above and because of expansion requirements for Cataloguing and Order.

From the above it can be seen that the massive increase in branch processing would require approximately another 2,000 sq. ft. in order to handle all of the work. Unless the present Hallam Room is utilized for this purpose, it would be necessary for the technical processes for the amalgamated City of Toronto branches to be carried out in a separate building.

CHAPTER IIII Operation of the Libraries in the 4-city Area

The resulting 4 library systems will operate independently.

The Toronto system should be organized on a regional basis, implementation being progressive as funds become available for buildings to carry out the regional function in accordance with standards already adopted. Immediately the Township of York main library should be designated a regional library and its area established. The East York Library should be assessed for its adequacy to carry out the regional function.

The Branch Headquarters senior staff should be adequate to administer the larger number of branches.

CHAPTER IIIIII Operation of the Metropolitan Library Board

Initially the function of this Board and its administrative staff should be a coordinating one. It should endeavour to obtain agreement on centralized processing, a single library card for the area, and a single salary scale for the four systems. It should undertake

research in the application of automated methods, particularly for centralized processes.

It should encourage the establishment of regional libraries in each of the systems by grants for building and maintenance of standards of service.

Initially the staff might consist of a chief librarian, an administrative assistant (non-professional), a research assistant (professional), and a secretary.

A headquarters should be established in a geographically central location and independent of any of the four library systems.

Under such a board, there would seem obviously to be much more cooperation in the fields of collections, centralized cataloguing, mechanization and computerization, systems development, than there is at present, and a much less grudging attitude, on the part of both Metro Council and Metro libraries, with respect to the granting of Metro monies for the operation of the Central Library (Division).

Under a Metropolitan Library Board, particularly if the Central Library should also be designated a provincial resource, it is possible that the library, or alternatively, the Bibliographic Centre, might in some way be divorced from the Toronto Public Library system; in the case of the Centre, it might seem desirable to divorce it from its present location.

Again, arising more likely out of action based on Mr. St. John's recommendations, but also possible within the context of a Metropolitan library board, some of the present metropolitan main libraries might be designated senior regional libraries, with one acting as a central regional library, leaving the Central Library with an altered role to play on the larger metropolitan-provincial scene.

Staff of the Central Library might very likely continue as TPL employees, with the Metro Board paying all the costs of reference research, and specialized services provided by all sections of the Central Library Division.

CONCLUSION

The Board has already authorized a survey of Boys and Girls book replacement ordering and processing to be carried out in the Fall of 1965 by KCS Limited. Once the report of this study has been received I would like to consider employing the same firm for a more general study of the possibility of a new Branches Division processing service which might be operated:

- (a) as a contract service with a commercial firm;
- (b) as a service of the Toronto Public Library Board
- (c) as a metropolitan area-wide service.

The other suggestions and recommendations of Division Heads contained in this report should form the basis for further investigation with a view to the preparation of detailed plans should any form of amalgamation take place.

8th September, 1965.

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